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ABSTRACT

This is a booklet in the Project IDEALS series concerning personal development/social behavior. The first section details the various aspects and innovations concerning student discipline. Sections two and three deal with student-parent relationships and peer relationships respectively. A fourth section discusses teacher effectiveness in the classroom, and section five presents innovations in computer-assisted guidance and counseling. Bibliographies are included at the end of each chapter. (JB)

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PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

PART III

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PROJECT IDEALS

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT*

PART III

Discipline, Student-Parent Relationships, Peer Relationships, Teacher Effectiveness, Guidance and Counseling

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*PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT is divided into three parts—see Foreword for listing of all three parts.

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PREFACE

In school systems which are characterized by rapid growth there is little time to examine research and promising practices as new schools are built and their programs developed. Recognizing that this was a unique problem of the larger school systems in Florida, the Florida Educational Research and Development Council brought together the representatives of school systems enrolling 50,000 pupils or more to see what could be done to provide a sounder basis for planning and development of school programs. Growing out of this discussion came Project IDEALS. This project was made possible through a Title III grant from the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare to Pinellas County which serves as county of record. This county in turn contracted the Project to the Florida Educational Research and Development Council. Special recognition should be given to Supt. Thomas Southard and Mr. N. O. Clark, Director of Special Projects of Pinellas County; and to Mr. Leo Howell, State Title III ESEA Coordinator. Without the cooperation and assistance of these gentlemen this project would not have been possible.

Growing out of the work of the eleven consultants, four staff members and twenty graduate assistants were eleven working papers dealing with various aspects of education. These were termed working papers because they are used by the participating counties to develop what might be called an ideal program. They are now being published by Florida Educational Research and Development Council as research papers. Many thousand pieces of research were examined and screened so that those that appeared to be most pertinent might be included in these publications. Moreover, hundreds of promising practices were reviewed and those that seemed to be applicable to the topic are described. The Florida Educational Research and Development Council believes that these papers are valuable to all school people who have an interest in building upon research and promising practices. All references to studies and promising practices in the text are keyed to the bibliography making it possible for those interested to secure more detailed information when needed. The findings in these papers should form a basis for planning and future development of education.

J. B. White
Executive Secretary

January, 1970

FOREWORD

Project IDEALS is a cooperative effort by eight Florida counties, having as its ultimate goal the design, construction, and evaluation of facilities to house "ideal" programs—programs designed to capitalize on and incorporate the maximum amount of existing pertinent knowledge. The term "IDEALS" is an acronym referring to the identification, dissemination, evaluation, and adaptation of laboratory studies.

This paper is one of eleven developed as the first phase of the project; identifying the research findings, exemplary practices, innovative ideas, and theoretical developments in each area. Each paper has been prepared by an established specialist in the content area. Considered as a whole, these eleven papers provide a summary of answers and alternatives for the most crucial questions involved in designing programs and weighing building design against instructional needs.

Using a somewhat unique arrangement for "slicing" the task into units has contributed to the effectiveness of this exploration by the writers through fresh perspective in analyzing data and in relating data to needs. It is anticipated that the same effect will be obtained for each county's task force teams as they apply these findings to the larger responsibility of program design.

The areas explored are listed below, with brief descriptions:

(A) *Personal development* (development of student as a person).

Gerald Webster, in three parts:

Part I. Health, Health Education, Physical Fitness, Extracurricular Programs, School Facilities

Part II. Creativity, Gifted, Special Education, The Drop-out, Equality of Educational Opportunity

Part III. Discipline, Student-Parent Relationships, Peer Relationships, Teacher Effectiveness, Guidance and Counseling

(B) *Skills for communication* (reading, listening, problem solving, etc.). Maurice Ahrens *et al.*, in four parts:

Part I. Listening—Oral Language, Ruthellen Crews; Non-verbal Communication, Maurice R. Ahrens

Part II. Approaches to Teaching Reading, Emaline Henriksen

Part III. Handwriting—Spelling, Maurice R. Ahrens; Composition, Ruthellen Crews

Part IV. Dimensions of Creativity, Joseph J. Shea; Inquiry Skills, Robert Bane; Study Habits and Skills, Maurice R. Ahrens

(C) *Use of organized knowledge* (organizing and teaching the various disciplines, especially English, mathematics, science and social studies). Luther Rogers

(D) *Vocational preparation programs* (extent and type of vocational education to be offered in public schools). Edwin L. Kurth

(E) *Resources for learning* (learning aids and resources such as television, radio, teaching machines). William Breivogel

(F) *Organization for instruction* (large and small groups, class size, flexible scheduling, individualized instruction, independent study). William M. Alexander

(G) *Curriculum and instruction practices for continuous learner progress* (non-graded school, dropouts, grading, diploma types). Glen Hass

(H) *Staff Selection, education and utilization* (use of teaching aides, paraprofessionals, in-service training and the self-contained classroom). Myron Cunningham

(I) *Special service of the school district* (auxiliary services such as health services, food services, pupil personnel services, transportation, etc.). Michael Y. Nunnery

(J) *Administrative organization* (effectiveness of different types of administrative organizations, comparing research in this area, problems of articulation between one school and another). Ralph Kimbrough and John Andes

(K) *Educational Applications of Instructional Computer Systems.* (Computer assisted instruction, learning factors within computer oriented instruction, developmental and management concepts, educational applications of computers, and operational questions about computers.) Duncan Hansen and Kenneth S. Majer

H. H. McAshan, Director
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PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

PART III

DISCIPLINE

Introduction

Any discussion of discipline is, at best, a complex and controversial topic. Questions which must be raised prior to a discussion of discipline techniques *per se* are such factors as: the basic and inherent nature of man; the nature of mental health; and means of achieving the latter.

Although we often give verbal testimony to man's goodness, our behavior toward him often connotes an attitude of man as basically bad. If man is basically bad or evil then the more traditional practices of socialization and discipline in the elementary school and increasingly punitive measures in the secondary school are appropriate. If, on the other hand, we view man as basically good then it follows that children and students in trouble are best assisted by *setting clearly defined limits within which they experience understanding, love, and empathy.* Decisions by school personnel concerning the basic nature of man will largely influence the manner in which students "in trouble" are disciplined.

Closely associated with the basic nature of man is the concept of mental health (discussed in the report introduction Part I). If the goal of emotional and social development is *adjustment* then behaviors which deviate from the norm are what will receive attention. If, however, the goal of emotional and social development is adequacy and authenticity then there is as much or more attention given to creative exploration and enhancement of positive behavioral qualities as there is to behaviors which are viewed by either self and/or others as self-defeating. In this latter case identifying "bad behaviors" which are deserving of discipline becomes a much more tenuous, difficult, and ambiguous task.

Another consideration which is increasingly receiving attention is the teacher's personality and mental health and its role

in the classroom environment. Research has clearly shown the classroom atmosphere facilitates or inhibits learning. For too long it has been assumed maximum learning requires a regimented and well-attentioned classroom. A growing realization is that more learning takes place when the student is involved. This involvement may often be misconstrued as confusion-producing or disruptive and deserving of discipline.

If learning is not taking place, still another question must be asked. Is the lack of learning the student's fault or *might it be a product of the teacher's personality and mental health?* For too long we have unequivocally assumed it is the former. We can and should expect to see greater attention given to the teacher's role in contributing to disruptive behavior which results in discipline.

There are some excellent resource materials which deal with theories of discipline and discipline approaches and might well be used either by teachers or with teachers in pre-school planning or inservice programs.

Webster (1968) has developed a comprehensive theory of discipline (based upon personality factors, interpersonal orientation, developmental tasks, and poverty) whose aim is self-control. Self-control is best achieved, Webster claims, by utilizing a philosophy of democratic discipline (rather than permissiveness) involving reason, respect, and relevance.

Concise guidelines for teacher intervention are furnished and based upon the severity of the problem and the frequency of its occurrence. Behaviors which are either temporarily or permanently disrupting are encouraged to be dealt with immediately while nondisruptive behaviors are encouraged to be handled after class either directly or by referral. Finally, ten quasi-programmed case studies are supplied which would be excellent materials for inservice education on discipline.

Sheviakov and Redl (1956) have presented a rationale of classroom behavior and discipline techniques teachers might use. Their main concern is also in motivating students towards self-discipline. Ethical dilemmas involved in discipline are also considered. Another excellent reference directed primarily at the elementary school, but of value to all educators, is by Gnagey (1965). Although Gnagey's effort is not particularly innovative, it does an excellent job in drawing together, synthesizing, and summarizing current thinking and research concerning discipline in the mid-sixties.

Factors Influencing Disruptive and Delinquent Behavior

As is too often the case, the literature is replete with opinions concerning how disruptive behavior should be handled but little attention and research has been given to what causes disruptive behavior. The intent of this section is to discuss the paucity of research which exists with reference to causal factors contributing to disruptive behavior. Two factors lacking research validation but which authorities concur lead to disruptive behavior are boredom and a need for attention-getting. Although it is commonly acknowledged that the intellectually gifted may be bored in the classroom, this prerogative does not seem to extend to the average and culturally deprived student.

Another factor which often results in boredom is lack of interest. Although teachers try to make subject matter interesting, it is rather presumptuous to assume *all* students will or should be interested in all topic matter. When boredom occurs immediate intervention by the teacher can often prevent the establishment of chronic disruptive behavior.

As mentioned above, disruptive behavior is often also an attention-getting device. Disruptive behavior of this nature often results when the student has either exhausted his usual skill repetoire for obtaining attention or when he has not had the opportunity to learn socially acceptable means of getting attention. What can be said, however, is that *the student's behavior, disruptive or not, is his best attempt to fulfill his need for attention* even if the consequence involves punishment and discipline.

Lack of peer acceptance is another factor which often results in disruptive behavior. Lorber (1966) found students who are socially unacceptable to their peers engage in significantly more disruptive behavior in the classroom. This may represent the unaccepted student's way of punishing others for not accepting him and "hitting them where it hurts most" (inhibiting and frustrating their learning). The sensitive teacher, aware of the interpersonal and group dynamics of the class, might well eliminate the establishment of these kinds of permanent and habitual disruptive patterns through the use of such *constructive* techniques as sociograms, seating arrangements, individualized instruction, group discussions, role playing, socio-drama, recognition-inducing assignments, etc.

An extensive study by Roff and Sells (1968) investigated the relationship between peer acceptance and socioeconomic status

of third through sixth grade boys. Their findings indicate disruptive behaviors in middle and upper socioeconomic level students reflect personality difficulties while disruptive behavior in lower socioeconomic levels is an expression of "lower-class culture". Thus from a therapeutic point of view, *differential discipline approaches are necessary.* The lower class student might benefit most from exposure to and learning of middle class values while middle and upper class students would seem to benefit more from diagnostic testing and counseling.

Feldhusen *et.al.* (1967) studied the relationship between classroom behavior, intelligence, and achievement in third and sixth grade. They found (with intelligence held constant) children who engage in socially unapproved behavior in the classroom achieve significantly less than others. More disturbing is the finding that the achievement gap increases from third grade to sixth grade. Thus children seem to get "in trouble" early in their school careers and, in so doing, may also not acquire vital academic skills necessary for continued achievement as they progress through school.

Because of this situation, schools may wish to consider using a *Discipline Expectations Scale* recently developed by Jones (1967). This 85 item scale (used in the 4th grade) can assist teachers in identifying both types of behavior students are likely to engage in and the severity of discipline the student expects. This type of information should be particularly valuable since Jones found students who do "misbehave" have different discipline expectations than those who conform to classroom expectations. Phillips (1968) has also developed a children's questionnaire which measures school anxiety and coping style which may be of value to teachers. This approach provides teachers with information about students perceptions of discipline expectations, allows for possible "individualized discipline," and may prevent the beginning of student behaviors and attitudes which become increasingly self defeating as they progress in school.

Pine (1965) studied disruptive behavior and socioeconomic class in the high school. He found no relationship between social class and amount of delinquent behavior. Disruptive behavior was found, however, to be a function of downward mobility within one's social class. Thus it is apparent personality, social class, and downward mobility also influence and affect both the amount and type of disruptive behavior.

Innovative Discipline Techniques

Very little was found with reference to innovative discipline approaches or research concerning discipline practices. None of the practices and research listed below represent a comprehensive, articulated approach to discipline, K-12. Nevertheless, they may serve as piece-meal approaches to strengthen existing programs.

Chapman (1962) describes the suspension therapy program of Modesto, California schools. Standards are established by the teacher, pupil and parents. Chronic disruptive behavior results in the child being suspended from school after being seen by the school psychologist. Parents are consulted and cooperation is generally good. The emphasis of the program is to indicate to the child that the teacher and the parents are "helpless observers" and that the student is responsible for his own behavior. When the child is re-admitted to school it is first for short periods of time. Gradually the time spent in school is increased. Few students seem to miss much school. Reoccurrence of behavior problems seem reduced since the child soon learns that suspension is indeed automatic and *does not result in recognition.* One serious concern of this approach might be that it focuses on the behavior (symptom) and gives little attention to motivation (cause).

Project ABLE has been quite successful in eliminating classroom problems in elementary and junior highs of New York City (*American School Board Journal,* 1968). A team consisting of a psychiatrist, psychologist, social worker, and counselor are permanently assigned in a school and have a caseload of 184 students, predominantly Negro and Puerto Rican. The primary thrust of the team is *immediate* intervention. This program reduced five day suspensions by 139 and administrative suspensions by 22 during the first year. This type of program appears to be of more therapeutic value for both the teacher and the child than that described above.

Using a more abstract, conceptual, and theoretical approach, Piliavin *et.al.* (1968) studied delinquency rate in relation to "cost" (loss of respect and affection by father, mother, school and/or teachers). They found when fear of rejection by significant others was high, students engaged in must less delinquent and disruptive behavior. Their conclusion was that higher self-control might be achieved through increasing the "cost" of delinquency behaviors.

Some innovative discipline systems are attempting to discern what constitutes individual and collective rewards for students and then attach these rewards to desired behaviors rather than punishing undesirable behaviors. This new rationale is based on the fact that *positive, as opposed to negative, reinforcement is more effective in shaping behavior.* Some may object to this approach on grounds of behavioral manipulation. Nevertheless, preliminary investigations of its effectiveness warrant further investigation, particularly with the mentally retarded and emotionally disturbed (Webster, 1968).

An approach which has worked quite well with adolescent delinquent boys who have strong feelings toward authority figures has been described by Darney (1967). These boys were matched by I.Q., ethnic background, and reading ability. One group of boys was given reading instruction, one group swimming instruction, and another group no instruction. A follow-up study 18 months later showed reading instruction had been significantly more effective in changing adolescent attitudes.

Pelegrino (1966) has described how school personnel can establish a program for delinquent youth. In this program emphasis is given to arranging for and providing programmed activities and on giving special attention to participants in these activities who demonstrate anti-social behavior. Recommendations are also made for facilities, rules, supervision, and means of dealing with coordinating agencies.

Numerous school districts have attempted constructive programs for high school age delinquents who are involved with the juvenile court. In particular the Kansas City, Kansas, (1967) and Provo, Utah (1968) schol districts have established remedial and academic programs with such ancillary services as counseling for both student and parent, recreation facilities, big sisters and brothers, and work programs, all of which are directed at communicating to the student the school's commitment and concern for his well-being and success. Preliminary evaluations of these programs indicate they are quite successful.

Schools may wish to suggest private schooling for dropouts or chronic and serious discipline problem high school students of moderate or above average income parents. Traditionally private schools have stressed either individualized instruction and/or rigid disciplining (military prep schools). An innovative and alternative private school concept is the Walden School in

Washington, D.C. (Grant, 1966). The basic rationale of schools of this type is providing a "free environment" in which the persistent "problem" student who resists and is aggressive toward traditional structure and authority no longer has an environment which resists him. The student does not "have" to attend classes. Classes in any subject are offered if three or more students indicate interest. In short, the philosophy of the school, similar to Summerhill in England, is to encourage honesty and offer a curriculum of real concerns. After a period of time students generally develop interest in traditional topics. In the first three years of operation, 12 of 20 graduates entered college and 5 entered the military. Although these figures are not overly optimistic they are probably more realistic than results "advertised" by many private schools.

One approach which may receive increased attention in the future is inservice training programs for teachers. Counselors, social workers, and other human relations experts have been utilized to provide sensitivity experiences for teachers. These experiences are directed at creating a more sensitive and aware teacher who is better able to identify and resolve disruptive behaviors in the classroom. In the final analysis, the teacher is the most effective agent in identifying and resolving classroom problems.

Conclusion. Although we are far from a comprehensive and effective discipline theory some trends do seem to emerge. These are: (a) establishing *well-definied* limits within which the student experiences warmth and love; (b) behavior toward the student is *consistent*; (c) development of student *self*-control rather than perpetual threat of external control; (d) *immediate* intervention when severly disruptive behavior occurs; and (e) the establishment of *differentially* metered discipline predicated upon scientific knowledge of causal factors and discipline expectations.

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STUDENT-PARENT RELATIONSHIPS

Introduction

The child-parent relationship is not only responsible for most of the formation of the child's personality, attitudes, and beliefs but also for much of his learning readiness and attitudes toward school. To the child, entering school signifies a new and strange experience. In a much larger sense the school serves as a vehicle for expanding the child's life space. Although entering school is a significant event in the child's life, it should not be assumed the child's relationship with the parents (as he progresses through school) is necessarily any less significant than the relationship was prior to school entry.

Because of the importance of the child-parent relationship in forging the child's life style and in defining the parameters of his life space it might be assumed this relationship has been investigated extensively. Knowledge and information concerning the dimensions of this relationship could be of benefit to parents, the school, and the child himself as he matures. Nevertheless, certain phenomena have resulted in this relationship being explored much less than might be supposed. Some inhibiting factors are: (a) the dynamic nature of human development; (b) lack of experimenter control of the treatment and relationship; (c) lack of sophisticated research instrumentation; and (d) societal attitudes evolving around the sanctity and privacy of the home and the child-parent relationship.

Most of the research available concerning this relationship has come from psychology rather than education and thus it has not attempted to study the relationship between the parent and child as it relates to the school environment. Given these impediments, schools must realize the extent of their current role may be limited to: (a) being aware of the significance of the student-parent relationship in the child's emotional and social growth as well as his achievement; (b) continually attempting to make (let) the school environment be more growth facilitating; and (c) providing intense remedial growth environments for those students whose parental relationships and/or home environment has been frustrating, hostility-producing, and alienating.

A final consideration should be the awareness that while core behaviors tend to carry over from one environment to another, it cannot *ipso facto* be assumed this is necessarily true. Infer-

ences about the student's behavior at home from behavior observed at school generally hold. Nevertheless, if the student's behavior and relationships at school are less constructive than at home the school and student might investigate what aspects of the school environment are incapacitating him.

Aspects of the Student-Parent Relationship

As mentioned earlier, the child enters school with a personality and "state" of mental health which account for much of his learning readiness and later achievement. The review of the literature showed the major focus of the 60's has been on: (a) investigating the effect of lower socioeconomic existence on learning readiness; and (b) providing remedial cultural enrichment programs directed at replacing lower socioeconomic motivations and behaviors with middle-class motivations and behaviors.

Governmental programs such as Head Start, Upward Bound, After Care, Youth Opportunities Centers, etc. have been implemented to bridge these gaps. Although it is too soon to evaluate the effectiveness of these programs current indications are that they are *not yet potent enough* to significantly and permanently alter self-concepts. Research concerning Head Start programs generally indicate gains in learning readiness and achievement in first grade. In second grade, however, there seems to be a regression back toward original socioeconomic achievement levels.

Socioeconomic Class

Chilman (1965) summarized a series of studies concerning lower socioeconomic patterns of child-rearing as opposed to those of middle class. Her conclusion was *"poor" children are "behind" personally, socially, and academically to such an extent it is difficult to ever catch up.* One example of the seriousness of this gap is a study by Newsome and Newsome (1967) who demonstrated the middle class child is rewarded for verbal behavior and thus comes to value it while lower class children do not. The expansiveness of this schism is further evidenced by the findings of Cloward and Jones (1962). They found that while all socioeconomic classes perceive the connection between education and socioeconomic mobility, *middle class parents take achievement for granted while lower class parents view*

education as beyond their financial capability and thus react by diminishing and deemphasizing its value.

One indication of parental influence on the life style formation of the child can be seen in the study by Perrone (1967). He investigated the similarity and stability of students and parents values between 7th and 10th grade. While both boys' and girls' values changed in the direction of values parents hold for them, boys disagree more with their parents concerning values than do girls. The implications of this study are at least two fold: (a) it indicates the continual shaping (pressure and often punishment?) of the student by the parent; and (b) it indicates the need for and desirability of the school's intervention in cases of parental neurosis or indigency.

While membership in middle class may be the goal of the school for lower socioeconomic students, membership in middle class *per se* is no guarantee of healthy student-parent relationships. Murphy (1967), using the *Mooney Problem Check List*, investigated the accuracy of parental perceptions of ninth grade students' problems. His findings indicate parents fail to perceive accurately students' problems and that fathers are much less successful than mothers in identifying areas of concern to adolescents. Sybouts (1967) found students whose mother was not employed got in significantly less discipline trouble. His conclusion was that the greater the degree of family disorganization, the greater the strain on the student-parent relationship.

Research has shown self-acceptance is contingent upon an adequate self concept, which in turn, is influenced by the feedback of others. Suinn (1960) indicates student self-acceptance is significantly related to acceptance by both father and teacher. Parodoxically, the need for acceptance on the part of the adolescent continues even as he strives for independence and autonomy. This search for a unique identity often manifests itself in rebelliousness. Mussner (1965) indicates adolescents often stereotype parents as a group even though they continue to need their acceptance. With issues such as the new morality, student protest, drugs, and the birth control pill moving from the college setting into the high school and lower it can be expected that increased strain, disorder, confusion, and acting-out will result in both the home and the school. With such issues on the horizon how can the school promote mental health and learning in the school? How significantly will the school's impact gen-

eralize to other environments in which the student exists? What should be the relationship between the school and parents?

Innovations in Facilitating Student-Parent Relationships

A popular assumption on which schools operate but which lacks empirical validation is the concept of parental involvement in the school. Regardless of the source of the assumption it has generalized and it is now often assumed *all* parents should be intimately involved in and concerned about many of the schools' activities. An example of this belief is manifest by the Parent Teacher Association which, while well-intentioned, has never seemed to realize the success and effectiveness for which it was intended. Shifting societal patterns (urban living, the female labor force, automation, declining religious values, etc.) have not only resulted in increasing parental alienation and estrangement from the school but also from the student in his own home. Because of these and other reasons the school seems to be increasingly charged with the role of "in loco parentis." Thus while there is a belief in the inherent value of parental involvement in the school there simultaneously seems to be less involvement than ever before.

The review of the literature indicated educators are evolving a new concept of the parental role in relation to the school. *Previously the school attempted to foster parental interest in the school per se. Recently, however, innovative practices across the country are attempting to engender parental attention and involvement with the child (and only indirectly with the school).* Implementation of such a practice requires well thought out public relation strategies and expenditure of considerable monies (specialized personnel, increased printing costs, released time for teachers, utilization of school facilities, etc.). Although the evaluation of such programs may by necessity have to be indirect and subjective, realization of such factors as: (a) home as the other major institution in the child's life space; (b) the time the child spends in the home; (c) the impact of the home on the child's mental health, achievement, and life style; (d) conflicting ideologies supplied by the home, church, and school; and (e) "undoing" by the home of gains made in the school should lead schools to investigate practices directed at involving parents with their children.

The Belvidere, New Jersey (1967) program has evolved the "troika" (parent. teacher, case worker) concept. This pro-

gram is directed at fostering parental involvement during kindergarten enrollment. Such a program might not only reduce the number of cases of "school phobia" but also capitalize on parental hopes and aspirations for their children's success. The major objective of this program is to "focus attention on the family as a potent force in education." The case worker is the fulcrum of the troika and although parent involvement in the program is voluntary, once case worker-parent contact is established a good chance exists for a relationship to develop. Teacher-case worker discussion groups and parent-case worker discussion groups often evolve out of this approach. The very nature of this program defies hard, objective evaluation. Nevertheless, case worker use of the *Interpersonal Checklist* and the *Bell-Schaeffer Parent Attitude Research Instrument* (PARI) have provided the school with invaluable data concerning the parent-child relationship. It also communicates to parents that the school is sincere, involved and committed to the student, and acting in good faith by attempting to utilize all possible data in making the student's education more meaningful to him.

Briggs (1967) describes the Cleveland, Ohio, public schools' approach to parental involvement. Well-organized and attractive curriculum reports which convey progress in subject matter are accompanied by several page reports concerning normal psychosocial development, explanation of subject matter approaches, and average academic expectations. The outcome of such a practice tends to result in parent discussion groups or workshops. The Higher Horizons Program (1961), although directed at raising cultural and educational expectations of students, has also been quite successful in increasing parental participation in this manner.

The New York City High Horizons Bulletin (1965) used a slightly different approach. The school attempted to coordinate science and mathematics throughout the elementary school. In so doing it used parent study groups and resource persons to communicate to parents the advantages of such an approach. This academic information-dispensing program is not particularly threatening to middle class parents and could serve as a vehicle for more affectively oriented parent programs. As mentioned above, this type of program serves the additional function of communicating to parents the school's concern about the student's welfare.

Over 20 California districts have adopted the PET (Parent

Effectiveness Training) Program (Peterson, 1969). This 24 hour course of classroom instruction developed by Thomas Gorden has a fee of $40.00/parent (although some parents are financed by the school) and uses the *Parent Effectiveness Training Notebook*. The intent of this course is to assist parents in establishing better relationships with their children through: (a) listening to feelings; (b) formulating their own feelings into direct messages; and (c) acquiring these and other skills through tape recordings, role-playing, lectures, demonstrations, discussions, and practice experiences. The success of this program has resulted in the establishment of three regional offices.

The Cranston, Rhode Island (1967) pilot program is one of the more innovative approaches for high schools uncovered in the review of the literature. This forward-looking approach may well anticipate the student-parent and student-school confrontation discussed at the start of this report. The main goal is to foster better communication between parents and adolescents and in so doing facilitate the student's development *in the home and the school*. Three basic practices are involved in this program. In an attempt to bridge the generation gap adolescent-adult conferences between 60 students and 60 parents were established with student-teachers (representing the in-between generation) as conference leaders. The second practice involved project staff serving as leaders in conducting non-directive guidance sessions with parents. The third practice involved establishing investigating teams comprised of 6 parents and 6 students who were: (a) to research specific social problems; (b) participate in at least one allied civic or cultural experience; and (c) then exchange views via debates on the problem under consideration.

Finally, Duncan and Fitzgerald (1969) investigated the value of parent orientation versus a parent interview as a means of creating better parent-student communication. They found a one hour unstructured interviewed with a counselor prior to student entry in the 7th grade resulted in significantly (.05) greater parental contact with the school, better student attendance, higher grade point averages, lower dropout rates, and fewer disciplinary referrals, over a 3 year period.

No other programs were found whose specific purpose was: (a) large scale involvement of the normal student's parents for the sake of involvement *per se*; (b) involvement of parents with

the goal of increased student-parent communication and thus increased functioning for the student in *both* home and the school; and (c) involvement with the school in the attempt to communicate both the value of new academic approaches and the school's good faith.

Conclusion. Forward-looking schools may want to consider at least three types of parent programs. The first type of program which has been discussed above is parent-student practices which benefit the student emotionally and socially both in the home and the school (essentially the common core self of the student which exists in both of these major institutions). The second type of program would involve parent-student practices directed at reducing the generation gap (which some authorities say is non-existent and others say is increasing daily). The third type of program which might merit consideration is parent-student practices directed at reducing the "institution gap". The major institutions (school, church and home) in the student's life space often supply him with conflicting value systems but with no method for evaluating and resolving a life style. It is in the welfare of the student as well as tomorrow's society for the school to provide opportunities to explore value systems and seek value resolutions which will result in more adequate and congruent student self-concepts.

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PEER RELATIONSHIPS

Introduction

Interpersonal and peer group relationships have long been realized to play a significant role in the emotional and social development of the student. Isolating and studying peer relationships, however, is extremely difficult.

Recent advances in research design and instrumentation are resulting in increased attention to and investigation of the peer relationship. Nevertheless, present studies are somewhat artificial since they often investigate peer relationships in a somewhat superficial and artificial setting, the classroom. The elementary school child's most significant peer relationship may well be a sibling or a neighborhood buddy in another class or grade while the secondary school student's best friend (or girl friend) will be in another classroom. With this situation research which investigates peer relationships within the classroom can be erroneous and misleading. To fully understand the impact of peer relationships as they relate to personal growth and achievement, studies in the future cannot be limited in scope by the arbitrary and artificial boundaries of either the classroom or the school.

A further limitation to investigating the peer relationship is lack of experimental control and manipulation. Relationships are not as easily made experimental variables as are teaching methods, subject matter, hardware, etc. The issue of manipulating (changing) peer relationships involves at least two other considerations, ethics and psychological resistance. From an ethical point of view it is questionable whether an individual (teacher, parent) or institution (home, school, church) has the moral prerogative of attempting to change or alter another person's (the student) relationships. Even if this were possible it should be realized the student, to the extent he is aware of being manipulated, will probably resist and may even strike back.

In the opinion of the writer the most appropriate goal of the school, besides fostering learning, is facilitating the mental health of students. Good mental health enhances peer relationships and learning. Thus the most effective means for improving poor relationships may be by the indirect means of creating a better classroom environment. In an emotionally and socially exploration-oriented classroom the major focus is on: (a) intrapersonal growth; and (b) constructive classroom interac-

tions which facilitate learning. Realization of these goals would automatically improve significant peer relationships which extend beyond the classroom as well as improving relationships and learning within the classroom.

Formation of Effective Peer Relationships

An accurate discussion of the factors which contribute to the establishment and maintenance of peer relationships would include: (a) the student as a sum total of his experiences at the moment in time; (b) another student as a sum total of his experiences at the same point in time; (c) the setting in which the relationship originates and the setting or settings in which it is maintained; and (d) the mutuality and compatibility of their needs and desires.

Space does not permit a breakdown and discussion of each of these components in depth. The overview presented discusses the role of mental health, socioeconomic level, success in peer groups, and cultural expectations as they contribute to the establishment of effective peer relationships within the school.

Anderson, *et al.* (1959) investigated the relationship between mental health and adjustment of students between the ages of 9 and 18. He found students classified as well-adjusted, fairly well-adjusted, and poorly adjusted differed in their affective (emotional) attitudes toward both life and the classroom. In general well adjusted students have a positive attitude toward life and the classroom which manifests itself in hope and optimism; poorly adjusted students have negative attitudes toward life and the class that is often manifested by frustration, unpleasantness, hostility, and experiencing life as a "jungle". These dichotomous orientations tend to be well integrated into the self-concept. The expectations of either life style result in behaviors which then confirm, entrench, and perpetuate the student's way of behaving and existing. If the school is to significantly interrupt and/or alter the life styles of the poorly adjusted then the techniques of intervention utilized must be sufficiently potent to modify the circular and self-fulfilling nature of maladjustment.

Fisher (1967) studied psychological distance in mentally disturbed and "normal" elementary school children's relationships. Her findings indicate the "normal" student perceives more emotional closeness between himself and others than does the less well-adjusted. Emotional distance was not a function of either

sex or age. Similar to other studies, she found mothers of more disturbed students were significantly more aggressive, irritable, and negative. This contributes to the emerging notion that parental adjustment "begets" student adjustment.

Although poor adjustment is often associated with distortion and inaccurate perception of reality, Keislar (1959) and Russell (1953) found both children and adolescents' self-appraisals on such traits as leadership, sociability, and lack of anti-social tendencies correlated .4 to .5 with ratings given them by their peers. This would tend to indicate the student is somewhat aware of his own behavior and how others perceive him. It cannot be assumed, however, that because the student is aware of this he is either solely responsible for, or capable of, arbitrary and instantaneous change.

It is not yet clear whether poor adjustment, *per se*, might be a function of socioeconomic level. It is reasonably safe to assume, however, that lower class members often experience feelings of inadequacy because of the traditional stereotyping they receive from middle class. Research has shown students in middle and upper socioeconomic classes are more often seen as desirable and preferred as leaders while children from lower socioeconomic classes are often seen as hostile and ignorant. Davidson and Lang (1960) indicate lower socioeconomic class students are aware of this stereotyping and receive it from teachers as well as students.

Schmuck, *et al.* (1963) found *students who perceive themselves as not being well-liked by either other students or the teacher not only think less yet of themselves but also make increasingly poorer school adjustments.* Lippitt and Gold (1959) found students who are highly liked by peers express more affection for their peers. Thus the intricately interwoven relationship between self acceptance, acceptance by others, and school adjustment seems to propel students with a positive orientation further in the direction of mental health and students with a negative orientation further into stagnation, depression, increased hostility, and often regressive behaviors. If the spiraling and continually confirmed feelings of worthlessness and inadequacy of the student are to be halted and the process reversed the educational techniques required to effect desirable changes will have to be potent.

Gronlund and Anderson (1957) studied the personality characteristics of socially accepted, socially neglected, and soci-

ally rejected high school students. His findings indicate peer acceptance is based on such traits and behaviors as dependability, honesty, cooperativeness, friendliness, enthusiasm, neatness, interest in school, and good adjustment. Students who often are rejected by both the teacher and peers tend to be disagreeable, assertively aggressive or passively uncooperative, overly quiet or distracting, immature, untidy, uninterested in school, and generally maladjusted. Although these latter mentioned behaviors are often expected from lower socioeconomic students (for survival purposes), they may also be witnessed in middle-class students experiencing frustration or trauma at home, in the school, or with their peers. Generally speaking these behaviors are transitory with the middle class student who is achievement oriented. It is doubtful, however, whether lower socioeconomic students *can* behave in socially accepted ways since they have seldom experienced or received these desirable behaviors from others.

As the student moves into the secondary school, peer groups differentiate and become stratified. Riester and Zucker (1968) investigated student peer groups and subcultures in a "typical" middle-Atlantic-state community of 13,000 people. Using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, they identified at least eight informal social subgroups in the high school: collegiates, peripheral collegiates, "leathers," peripheral "leathers," quiet or "average" kids, "true" individuals, intellectuals, and "kids who have a steady". Each social group is further classified by primary companionship, leisure time activities, clothing style, post high school plans, academic performance, academic curriculum, extra-curricular activities, percent employed, and drinking habits.

The implications of the above-mentioned study are at least three: (a) the existence of extremely complicated subcultures in the school; (b) the difficulty in identifying and remediating undesirable qualities of specific subcultures; and (c) psychological advantages and disadvantages accruing from membership in specific subcultures. Although the peer group the student identifies with temporarily solves his identity needs, certain subcultures foster more competition and conformity while others induce cooperation and individuality (Ausubel, 1968).

Although research conducted to date with reference to peer groups is very limited, a conclusion which seems warranted is the importance of peer relationships and peer group member-

ship for the student. The importance of peer relationships and peer group membership seems to increase as the student progresses through school reaching crucial importance in the adolescent "identity crisis." Although fluctuation in friendships decreases as the student progresses from junior high to college (Horrocks and Buker, 1951; Thompson and Horrock, 1947), between *one-seventh and one-quarter of all high school students consider themselves friendless* (Horrocks and Benimoff, 1966). Fortunately lack of being considered a friend does not seem to impede the isolated student from participating in informal peer group activities (Horrocks and Benimoff, 1967). Nevertheless it behooves educators to appreciate the number of students in the school who are friendless and to find innovative approaches contributing to better peer relationships.

Effect of Peer Relationships on Learning

The review of the research indicated rather clearly that a reasonably high correlation exists between peer acceptance or rejection and achievement. Peer acceptance, as implied above, is a function of many variables. The self-concept, socioeconomic level, personality, attitudes and opinions, motivation, physical appearance, intelligence, parent-student relationship, number of siblings, occupation of the father, educational attainment of the parents, etc. all interact and contribute to the personal development of the student at any point in time.

The research discussed below is limited to studies which have investigated the relationship among peer acceptance, peer group membership, and achievement. It can be assumed, however, that factors mentioned above which are conducive to good peer relationships will also be conducive to better achievement.

Van Egmond (1960) investigated the relationship between peer acceptance and achievement in the elementary school. He found boys who were leaders and influential with other boys had higher self-esteem and also actualized more of their academic potential than did low esteem boys. In a similar manner girls who were more liked, as opposed to those who were disliked or were liked by only a few, had higher self-esteem and realized more of their academic potential. Brookover, *et al.* (1964) partialed out intellectual ability and found a .4 correlation between self-esteem and achievement. When self-esteem and intelligence were used as predictors of achievement the correlation was as high as .7 for the combination.

Schmuck, *et al.* (1963) and Schmuck and Egmond (1965) have investigated the effect of peer group relationships on achievement, K-12. They found when the student perceives himself as liked and as having effective relationships his academic performance was significantly better. The inverse relationship also seemed to hold true. If the student either is disliked or perceived himself as being disliked his achievement was significantly less than those who were liked.

Muma (1965) investigated extremes in peer choice (high acceptance, high rejection) and achievement. Using a sociometric technique to determine peer acceptance and rejection, he found individuals who are highly accepted by their peers are more successful academically while those who are highly rejected were less successful. Students who were neither accepted or rejected *per se* but were neglected did not differ significantly from those of average acceptance. Muma (1968) also investigated achievement in performance (non-academic) classes such as band, shop, physical education, and driver education. Although results are not as clear cut as in his earlier study, those of high acceptance achieved significantly more than those who were rejected.

Smith (1967) studied the relationship between peer ratings of personality and achievement. Personality variables were factor-analyzed and the variable "strength of character" was found to be an important non-intellectual correlate of academic success.

O'Shea (1969) reviewed the literature which investigated the relationship between peer relationships and male academic achievement. In twenty-five studies conducted within the public schools (elementary, middle, and secondary) 15 showed a positive relationship between peer acceptance and achievement, 9 showed the absence of a relationship, and only 1 found a negative relationship. O'Shea indicates, however, that the rating of social behavior in many of these studies was by peers or teachers and thus a "halo effect" may well exist. Even though the "halo effect" exists reality of the situation is that it will probably continue to influence studies. Thus although the intrinsic value of the research may be misleading the relationship between being viewed positively by teachers and peers and achievement is real.

Schools seriously interested in exploring peer relationships should consult Miller (1964) and Bonney and Hampleman (1962) concerning tests and sociometric techniques which are

available for the classroom. Classroom climate measures and interaction analysis procedures discussed in the teacher-student section would also be valuable.

Conclusion. In conclusion there seems to be a reciprocal and circular relationship between peer acceptance and achievement. High peer acceptance leads to better achievement; better achievement leads to increased feelings of adequacy; and adequacy leads to increased peer acceptance. The reverse relationship also seems to hold true: rejection or poor peer acceptance contributes to underachievement; underachieving leads to feelings of inadequacy; and feelings of inadequacy lead to poorer peer relationships.

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TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

Introduction

Much of the success or failure of the educational enterprise is dependent upon the quality of the teacher-student relationship. Several reviews of the literature indicate over 1,000 studies have focused on this relationship and yet few concrete answers exist. As Campbell and Barnes (1969) state:

> In the 20-first century when the historians of education speak of the present era of supervision, they will doubtless be astounded that any individual could observe a class, see so much, understand so little, and produce a crisp evaluation of the teacher, the process, and the content in so short a time. The resulting superficiality has become apparent both to teachers and their militant spokesmen.

The review of the literature left this writer with the following impressions: (a) a lack of agreement among researchers concerning strategies of investigating the teacher-student relationship although a trend was noticed toward interaction analysis and classroom climate studies; (b) an emphasis on teacher behavior and its effects on the student rather than on teacher personality characteristics; (c) a continued emphasis on the teacher's impact on the personal and social development of the student and indications this would receive increasing attention in the future; and (d) research has identified several innovative techniques which schools may want to consider implementing in the classroom.

Because of the extensive amount of research which has been and is being conducted in this area, it is impossible to cover it all either in depth or scope. For this reason the writer has had to select as judiciously as possible. Even this type of delimitation, however, did not result in a unified and integrated body of knowledge. As Biddle (1967) states:

> It is clear that a striking range of concepts has already been used for the observation of classroom phenomenon, and that most conceptual systems developed to date reflect a lack of analysis or theory about their underlying structure and generally fail to recognize the existence of other types of concepts. As a result attempts to synthesize the joint implications of these systems face great difficulties.

It is within this context the writer discusses the teacher-student relationship.

Teaching Effectiveness

Teacher Role. There is general agreement the "teacher" concept, as historically defined, is neither appropriate nor inclusive enough for classroom activities and the teaching process. Perkins (1964) has described the teacher as a leader-director, resource person, supervisor, socialization agent, and evaluator. Gump (1967) uses such terminology as watcher-helpers, participators, action directors, recitation leaders, readers, and testers. Bills (1959) views the teacher as a stimulator while Lippitt (1966) indicates the teacher is a classroom manager. Although there is a lack of agreement among these authorities concerning the role of the teacher, all agree the traditional connotation of the teacher and teaching is outdated.

Criteria of Teacher effectiveness. Because of the extreme diversity of educational goals and outcomes desired, it is difficult to specify any one criterion of teaching effectiveness. Much of the research conducted to date has used criteria established by the American Educational Research Association (Barr, *et al.*, 1952). This committee developed the "ultimate proximity" criteria with ultimate criteria referring to teacher effects and proximate criteria involving teachers traits, characteristics, and behavior. Teachers' effects and behavior were then further classified into their effect on pupils, school operations, and school-community relations.

Another classification scheme which has received considerable attention is that described by Mitzel (1960). This scheme involves: (a) product criteria (changes in pupil behavior); (b) process criteria (teacher-student interactions); and (c) presage criteria (teacher characteristics). Recent research by Soar (1968b), utilizing systematic observation techniques with *Flander's Interaction Analysis,* resulted in his concluding the most fruitful area for further research is in studying process-product relations (teacher-pupil behavior and pupil growth).

Popham (1968) discussed a somewhat more simplistic approach utilizing a three-dimensional model of multiple criteria involving: (a) behavior versus products; (b) natural versus manipulated conditions; and (c) locally versus commercially devised instruments and procedures. Although Popham does not give much attention to Bloom's Taxonomies, he does encourage evaluation within a broad context and has supplied examples of locally developed applications of this approach.

A considerable number of authorities have suggested that criteria of effectiveness should be based on local and/or regional population characteristics. Teachers should then be selected according to their suitability for both that sub-population and the prevailing school philosophy. Hawkins and Stoop (1967) discuss the possibility of commonly agreed-upon teacher qualities based on the cultural setting of the school. In general, *there seems to be a trend away from a or the criterion of teaching effectiveness and a trend toward multiple criteria.* It can be expected this trend will continue until more specific criteria of effectiveness are found for both grade level and subject matter area.

Although a lot of current research is exploring classroom interaction and classroom climates, some valuable information has also resulted from the investigation of teacher characteristics and their differential impact at certain grade levels and in certain subject matter areas. This report will attempt to discuss significant findings in each of these areas as well as findings in general.

Teaching in the Elementary and Junior High. One of the most exhaustive studies of teaching effectiveness in the elementary school was conducted by Ryans (1960) and involved over 6,000 teachers in 1,700 schools. In this study he identified three major patterns of teacher behavior which are considered crucial for effective learning. These are

Pattern X—warm, understanding, friendly versus aloof, egocentric, restricted.
Pattern Y—responsible, business-like, systematic versus evading, unplanned, slipshod.
Pattern Z—stimulating, imaginative versus dull, routine.

These findings along with others were reviewed by Yamamoto (1963). He concluded the "degree of interdependence of teacher behavior and pupil behavior is substantially *higher* in the elementary school than in the secondary school." (underlining added). In a more recent review of teacher characteristics, LeFevre (1967) concluded elementary teachers are more person-oriented while high school teachers are more subject-oriented. Until recently this was about the extent of specific knowledge concerning the effective elementary school teacher.

Recent advances in interaction analysis, however, are providing considerably more information concerning teaching styles

in the elementary school and it can be expected that degrees of direct and indirect teaching methods will be developed for every subject area, K through 9, in the future (Campbell and Barnes, 1969). Their review of the literature, including studies by Flanders, Flanders and Amidon, Lashier, Brown, Nelson, Belter *et al.*, Soar, Furst and Amidon, Davidson, Powell, Weber, and Campbell, indicate varying degrees of *indirect* (accepting student feelings, praising the student, accepting and using student ideas, and asking questions) teaching behaviors are superior in grades K through 9. Some of Soar's research (1968a) indicates a more indirect approach for concrete topics such as vocabulary and direct for abstract subjects (reading). They temper this optimism, however, with the realization that there are an extreme number of elements involved in instruction and hypothesize that *elementary school teaching in the future will probably be characterized by computer selection of a series of teachers designated to team-teach specific topics and to rotate between classes.*

Of more current concern is research which indicates elementary school teachers are biased toward brighter students, often at the expense of those who are less able. Barnard *et al.* (1968) found not only that elementary school teachers were unable to identify elementary school children who were experiencing anxiety but also that teachers ascribed more desirable personality characteristics to students of high intelligence *whether these students possessed the personality qualities or not.* Although research has rather clearly demonstrated scholastic success and attitudes toward school are generally unrelated, Jackson and Lahanderne (1967a) found elementary teachers *still* tend to expect achievement and satisfaction with school to be more closely related than they are.

Additional evidence that elementary school teachers tend to distort their perception of students, based on their own dynamics, can be seen from the research of McCallon (1966) and McCallon and Dumas (1967). They found the elementary school teacher perceives himself as possessing more desirable personality traits than the student with the least desirable personality traits but less favorably than the student with the most desirable personality traits. They also favored teaching those students with the most desirable personality traits. Finally, the *more* teaching experience the teacher had, the less desirable they perceived the least desirable student. This latter mentioned finding, along with other studies concerning the effect of

teaching experience on classroom climate which are discussed later in this section (Yee, 1968), might warrant schools reevaluating the merit system based on teaching experience (see Innovation Section, which follows).

The extent of the impact of the teacher-student interaction on the student's attitudes toward school has recently been investigated by Flanders *et al.* (1968). He found a significant *decrease* in all students' positive attitudes toward teachers and school work during the school year. This decrease was independent of I.Q., socioeconomic level, or grades received but was related to how much the student felt in control of his "fate" and the teacher's verbal classroom behavior. If future research substantiates this finding educators may want to reevaluate current educational practices in total.

The recent trend of hiring male elementary school teachers was based upon the notion that the personal development of elementary school boys could be enhanced through the presence of male figures with which to identify. Recent research tends to indicate both male and female elementary school teachers are more involved with boys than girls and also tend to give them sterner discipline more frequently (Jackson and Lahaderne, 1967b; Jackson *et al.*, 1969). Although Kosier and DeVault (1967) found the teacher's personality influences the personalities of students in the elementary school more so than in the intermediate school, Farrall (1968) did not find significant differences in teacher acceptance or classroom mental health in classes with male elementary teachers. His conclusion is that male teachers do not provide an essentially different classroom environment than female teachers and that girls had a more positive reaction to male teachers than did boys.

Finally, schools may wish to investigate the possibility of utilizing a recently development instrument called *"About My Teacher"* developed by Beck (1967). This instrument has five dimensions: affective, cognitive, disciplinary, motivational, and innovative. It has been factor analyzed through the principal components method with rotation by varimax procedure and items with factor loadings below .5 were eliminated. This instrument was utilized in a study by Yee to be discussed in the innovation portion of this section.

Teaching in the Secondary School. As the student moves from the elementary and junior high school into the senior high school teachers move from a person orientation to a subject mat-

ter orientation (LeFevre, 1967). Thus the primary concern of many secondary teachers is academic mastery. If all educational goals are to be realized, however, the teacher must not only be competent in their subject matter but also be able to involve and motivate students.

The effective teacher has both an academic and a personal influence on the student (Hall, 1965). As many as one-fifth of the students in this study indicated teacher influence was significant in the student's career decision-making. These findings are complicated, however, by the fact that teachers rated as the best teacher by some students were rated as the poorest by others. This finding can only serve to point out the complexity of the interaction among the student, teacher, and subject matter. Patton and Desena (1966) also used student ratings of teacher effectiveness and found the good teacher was characterized as one with a good sense of humor, mastery of subject matter, and the ability to communicate clearly, in that order.

Because the secondary classroom is subject matter oriented, some earlier researchers assumed the most meaningful classroom interaction was verbal (Bellock, *et al.*, 1963; Smith *et al.*, 1964). Failure of interaction analysis research to date on the secondary level might also lead one to conclude both learning and personal development are somewhat independent of the classroom (Campbell and Barnes, 1969). Recent investigation of the classroom as a social system, however, has indicated the teacher plays a significant role in establishing a climate conducive to sound learning *and* emotional growth.

Walberg recently developed the *Classroom Climate Questionnaire* which he utilized extensively during the Harvard Project Physics (Walberg, 1968a; Walberg 1968b; Walberg 1968c; Walberg and Anderson, 1968). This system attempts to relate twenty-nine measures of teacher personality to eighteen dimensions of classroom climate, by multivariate analysis. An overview of some of the findings of these studies are: (a) teaching attitudes are significantly related to teacher need and values; (b) teacher need for dependence, power, and order result in a formal, subservient classroom with little anamosity among class members; teachers with needs to interact with students tend to have controlled, goal directed classes (in this type of class students may feel less personal intimacy with one another because of teacher monopolization); self-centered teachers tend to have disorganized, constrained classes in which students feel less

closely supervised; (c) the structure of the classroom is related to students' emotional reactions; and (d) the perceived classroom climate and students' emotional reactions result in predictable learning patterns. Schools seriously interested in investigating the emotional climate of the high school classroom will want to review these studies in depth.

A final area of research which appears promising for both elementary and secondary levels is the prediction (not necessarily controlling) of classroom teacher behavior. Many educational and social science authorities are agreeing that more effective solutions to human problems lie in the area of behavior observation and prediction rather than personality assessment. Crucial to some of the emerging behavioral observation systems is the notion of open and closed mindedness, also often referred to as cognitive flexibility and rigidity (Rokeach, 1960, Whiteley, 1967).

Seible (1967), using a series of instruments including the *MTAI* and the *F Scale* (authoritarianism), found a significant relationship between F Scale scores and teacher behavior and also obtained a canonical correlation of .59 between instrument measures and such teacher behaviors as seriousness, compliance with pupil requests, providing emotional support and affection, physical contact, allowing pupils to do things for themselves, and soliciting suggestions.

Goldberg (1968) measured openness and compulsivity in students and their concommitant perception of the teacher and learning. He found student compulsivity is strongly related to student perception of teacher behavior and that high compulsive students perceive the teacher as non-authoritarian and do *less* work while low compulsive students do *more* work when the teacher is perceived as non-authoritarian. This latter mentioned study will also be discussed in the innovation section.

The final investigation of teacher belief systems being reported here involves an extended study by Brown (1968) which attempts to relate teacher beliefs to teacher behaviors. Brown has developed a series of instruments which measure the teacher's personal values, their educational values, and an instrument devised to account for values of observers of teachers. Research results indicate the teachers' behavior in the classroom is more congruent with their personal values than their educational values. Brown indicates with his system it is also possible to measure beliefs and predict behavior, or vice versa. He goes

on to caution, however, that the strength of American education is the result of *diversified* educational practices and philosophies rather than *a* philosophy. Nevertheless, schools interested in establishing certain types of educational atmospheres may wish to investigate the possibility of utilizing these instruments for teacher selection and retention.

Innovations for Improving Personal Development in the Classroom

Because of the complexity of teaching and the teacher-student relationship, the writer would prefer to discuss the following practices as possibilities rather than as innovations, *per se*. This reservation is not due so much to the fact that the writer does not believe the practices have merit but rather to avoid instilling in the reader any notion they represent a panacea for the classroom.

Teaching the Disadvantaged. Research is beginning to shed some light on the type of teacher characteristics and qualifications necessary for effective teaching of the disadvantaged student. Hart (1965) found teachers who were status oriented and had high vocational aspirations gave as much attention to lower class students as they did to middle and upper class students. The attention differed, however, in that middle and upper class students received helpful teacher behaviors while lower class students received more dominant and punitive teacher behavior.

Gottlieb (1964) investigated both white and negro teachers' attitudes toward children of both races from lower socioeconomic families. Significant differences existed with white teachers describing lower socioeconomic students as "talkative, lazy, fun-loving, high strung, and rebellious" while negro teachers described lower class students as "fun-loving, happy, cooperative, energetic, and ambitious." Recent evidence suggests disadvantaged students' performance is not consistent with their capabilities because *teachers* do not expect them to achieve (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). Howard (1968) found that teachers do perceive the needs of lower socioeconomic children better than previous literature indicated. Teachers still tend, however, *to underestimate the number of problems children experience in school and overestimate the number of problems related to the home and family.*

Wayson (1966a,b) studied differences in inner-city teachers who remained on the job for 5 or more years versus those who resigned. He reported that white teachers who remained in these schools reduced their academic expectations of students and increased their acceptance of lower class behavior while teachers who left had increased discipline efforts, usually to no avail, during their stay. Those who left also gained greater satisfaction from student academic achievement while those who remained derived more satisfaction from the interpersonal relationships they established with students. Wayson also discussed screening procedures for selection of teachers of the disadvantaged and some rather unique teacher benefits, such as lack of extra-curricular responsibility, which contribute to increased teacher satisfaction.

Finally, Yee (1968) conducted several studies involving teacher personality characteristics, teaching attitudes and interpersonal attitudes of teachers involved with normal and disadvantaged students. Using the *About My Teacher* and *MTAI* instruments, he found teachers of lower class children (with 9 or more years teaching experience) had more traditional and negative attitudes toward pupil control while teachers of middle class students were more permissive and empathic toward controlling student behavior. Teachers of lower class children also influenced students more than teachers of middle class children. In addition, the *more* teaching experience the teacher possessed, the more pronounced teacher dominance became with lower class students.

Schools may want to consider using a recently developed *Teacher Attitude Test* designed specifically to measure attitudes toward disadvantaged students (Edwards, 1966). This test has been factor analyzed and can be administered in less than one hour. Edwards points out, however, that scores of teachers judged as highly successful with the disadvantaged vary widely. Thus this instrument might best be used as a guide in conjunction with other data to make teacher assignments.

Since some research has shown the disadvantaged student needs more warmth and understanding than middle class children (praise is more effective with lower class students while academic correctness is more important to middle class students), Yee (1968) hypothesized school systems might consider placing their more inexperienced, psychologically healthy, and "better" teachers in lower socioeconomic classes. A strategy

for implementing this type of program might be based on redefining teacher rewards. School districts might consider rewarding (pay and/or status) effective teaching of lower class students in addition to rewarding the teacher who stresses academic excellence.

Schools may also want to consider providing special training for teachers of the disadvantaged. Universities which have developed special programs for teaching the disadvantaged are Roosevelt University, Northwestern, and Hunter College. Followup by Hunter on their disadvantaged teachers showed that over 75 percent had remained in their "difficult" schools 2 or more years.

Considerable monies have been spent trying to educate the disadvantaged with little success. Because of this, the Federal government is trying a pilot program in Texarkana, Arkansas which involves reading and math education of the disadvantaged by private enterprise (Dorsett Educational Systems). Companies bid and the winner (Dorsett Educational Systems) received a contract that calls for payment only if skills are increased a specified amount in a specified period of time and are retained over a 6 month period. A similar approach is being tried in San Diego, California with Educational Development Laboratories, a division of McGraw Hill. If these approaches are successful, they could have far-reaching implications not only for educating the disadvantaged but also for public education, in general. (See Equal Educational Opportunity section for additional information, Part II.)

Teacher-Student Matching. Although matching of teachers and students has not been considered feasible in the past, a number of studies are pointing toward the possibility of this approach in the very near future. This innovation would not necessarily contradict nor be incompatible with either: (a) clearly defined teaching methods for specific topics at each grade level; nor (b) innovations which are directed at creating more interpersonal sensitivity for the total school staff. Improved teaching methods contribute to better learning; greater teacher sensitivity allows the teacher to be more aware of his own functioning and that of students; and matching teachers and students could provide the most compatible interpersonal dynamics between student and teacher which would allow greater utilization of teaching method and sensitivity.

The possibility of matching is rapidly becoming more feasible as a result of recent findings in interactior analysis studies, effects of teacher personality on student personality studies, and advances in computer technology which allow for rapid and complex matching. The research of Soar (1969) demonstrates the complex interaction of teacher behavior and the emotional climate of the classroom. For example, greater pupil growth occurs in reading when indirect teaching is accompanied by high expression of hostility while least learning takes place in classrooms with either direct teaching and high hostility or indirect teaching and low hostility. Soar also found students with a lot of anxiety were unable to use the freedom of an indirect classroom as constructively as low anxiety pupils.

Kosier and DeVault (1967) investigated the effect of teacher personality on the student personality. Their findings suggest the ego strength of the teacher influences the degree of student idenification and imitation of the teacher. They conclude by suggesting students with certain personality characteristics could benefit considerably from placement in classrooms of teachers whose personality characteristics would be predicted to have a positive impact on the students' personality.

Thelen (1967) has attempted to match teachers and students and terms his approach "teachability grouping." Each of 13 teachers were assigned a class in the normal manner and another class based upon a 405 item assessment battery directed at teacher-student compatibility. The classes grouped on the basis of teachability showed greater solidarity than regular classrooms and 80 percent (11 classes) of the teachability classes received higher grades. School districts which wish to experiment with this concept should consult Thelen in greater depth. In short, scientific advances are resulting in increased identification of factors that contribute to learning and personal development. As this occurs it can be expected grouping procedures will become increasingly refined and involve much more than ability or socioeconomic criteria.

Sensitivity Training. The last 5 years have witnessed an explosion in sensitivity training. Because of this some have said sensitivity training is a vogue which is already waning. While it is true that a considerable number of poorly planned and directed sensitivity groups have been disastrous to a few individuals, and on rare occasions to total school districts, these

isolated and rare events cannot be used to totally negate the merit and worth of the total group movement.

Before schools engage in sensitivity training for teachers, however, they would be well advised to consider: (a) the potential potency of varying types of group experiences; and (b) the fact that personal growth and improved institutional communication is far more easily discussed and desired than accomplished. Change has not, and never will be, an easy process; it is, at best, a slow, agonizing, painful process. Nevertheless, schools that consider themselves *ready* to take this step can benefit from *properly planned and paced* sensitivity experiences.

In general sensitivity groups can be structured and focus on either improved teacher functioning with students or on improved organizational communication between school personnel. Grossman and Clark (1967) have briefly discussed and described sensitivity experiences which are directed at assisting the teacher in dealing with classroom behavior. Jecker and Breitrose (1965) have described in depth an inservice sensitivity program which assists teachers in interpreting non-verbal behavior such as raising or lowering of eyebrows, blinking, amount of eye contact, frequency of boby movement, etc. Because of the extensive amount of research which has pointed out teachers' inability to recognize student anxiety, personality characteristics, behavior problems, and lack of control in the classroom, sensitivity training in the rapidly expanding area of non-verbal communication may be quite beneficial.

A number of schools have conducted sensitivity training and space does not permit an elaboration of all the schools involved. Three models which appear to be well planned, however, are those of Stillwater, Minnesota, Kendall Park, New Jersey and the C-group in California. Stillwater (1967) utilized sensitivity training prior to introducing team teaching in the school. In light of Borg's (1967) findings that more effective team teaching involves: (a) effective interpersonal relationships between members who team teach; (b) higher levels of intimacy and cohensiveness than less effective team teaching members; (c) more mutual planning; and (d) giving more suggestion, more opinions, more orientation, and asking for opinion more, schools may want to consider utilizing sensitivity training for their team teaching faculty.

Schools which are considering sensitivity training for a large

number of their faculty may want to investigate the model of Kendall Park, New Jersey (1967). They utilized a six week summer inservice training program led by T-Group trainers. What is important to stress about this model is that daily and weekly sessions were thoroughly planned and that a written evaluation followed the experience. Again, it cannot be overemphasized that if sensitivity training is to be successful it must be: (a) well planned; (b) of some duration extending over a period of time; and (c) have adequate follow-up and evaluation.

The C-Group (Case Group) has been used for inservice teacher training in the Monterey Elementary School, Grove City, Ohio (Foreman, Poppen, and Frost, 1967). The C-Group attempts to utilize the goals of the discussion, case study, and sensitivity group. Although no objective evaluation of this project is available, subjective evaluation indicates numerous positive outcomes. It should also be noted that the authors have serious questions concerning *required* sensitivity participation of teachers. (Refer to group subsection in Guidance and Counseling Section)

Systematic Observation. Another innovation which is based on the research of Soar (1968), has resulted in incorporating systematic observation of one's own teaching as a feedback device in teaching education at the University of Florida. This innovation is based upon the following findings: (a) indirect teaching produces more pupil growth; and (b) training in systematic observation procedures produces more indirect teaching. Soar states "this approach appears to be one of the most promising developments in teacher education today." Schools may wish to investigate utilizing this development in an inservice training program.

Computerized Approach to Individualized Instruction. Schools which have access to computers may want to investigate the computerized approach to individual instruction developed by Boulder, Colorado public schools (1967). This approach has revised the role of the teacher from being a presenter of information to being a consultant and/or director of learning activities and diagnostician of individual student needs. A new curriculum, based on the concept of the teaching-learning environment, has been developed and is built upon the "curriculum module." Two of the major objectives of this program are: (a) developing a system for storing and retrieving information about students

and curriculum alternatives; and (b) developing a framework within which learning alternatives are matched with student characteristics. Information concerning evaluation of this project should be available in late 1969.

Pupil Behavior Enhancement Specialist. The Kansas City, Missouri schools have developed and are implementing the concept of the pupil behavior enhancement specialist. These specialists, unlike counselors, work solely with teachers and administrative personnel. Each behavior specialist serves two days a week in each of two schools. Upon teacher request, the behavior specialist spends one day observing during class to obtain data for an accurate assessment. The second day is spent in staff sessions: (a) participating in training activities; (b) consulting with the educational systems consultants; and (c) assisting with the planning, evaluation, and dissemination activities of the project. Pages 43-44 show the system design and functional relationships of the program. As educators become more aware that effective personal development is dependent upon the creation and maintenance of therapeutic milieus it can be expected consultants similar to those described in this plan will increasingly be used.

Sex-Segregated Classes. Peltier (1968) conducted a fairly extensive review of the literature concerning sex differences in learning readiness, ability grouping, achievement testing, interests, personality, and the socializing process. Consistent and often significant differences in all of these areas between boys and girls led Peltier to the following two suggestions. Since boys often mature slower than girls boys might be admitted to school around six months later than girls. He indicates that while this solution appears logical, no major school systems have tried this approach.

His second suggestion is that boys and girls should attend some separate classes as is often done in European countries. He indicates the Wakefield Forest Elementary School in Fairfax County, Virginia, has utilized this technique on an experimental basis for the past six years. In general, boys made slightly better progress in language arts and mathematics, there was a decline in discipline problems, students were happier, attendance was better, and students were more willing to participate in class activities. Parents and teachers are also favorably impressed with the program. Peltier indicates boys might bene-

FIGURE 1.

Hypothetical System Design for the Elementary and Secondary Schools of Jackson County Showing Intra and Inter Sub-System Functioning

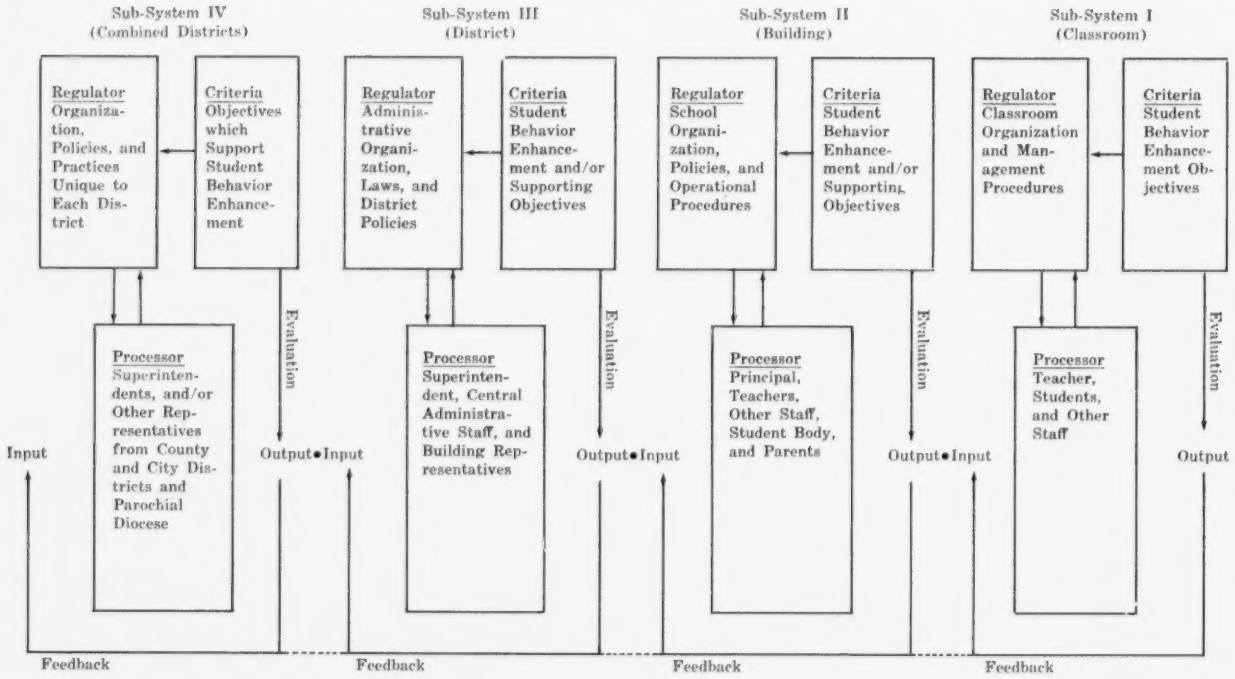
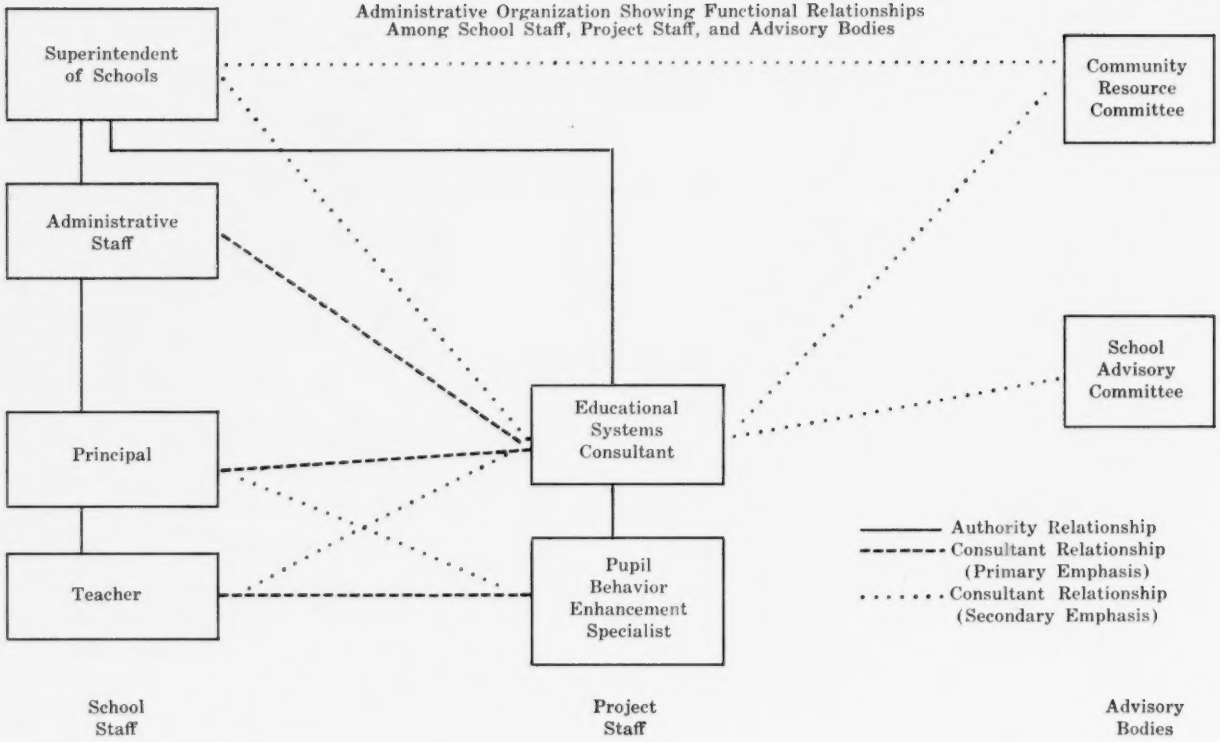

Sub-System IV (Combined Districts)
Sub-System III (District)
Sub-System II (Building)
Sub-System I (Classroom)
Regulator Organization, Policies, and Practices Unique to Each District
Criteria Objectives which Support Student Behavior Enhancement
Regulator Administrative Organization, Laws, and District Policies
Criteria Student Behavior Enhancement and/or Supporting Objectives
Regulator School Organization, Policies, and Operational Procedures
Criteria Student Behavior Enhancement and/or Supporting Objectives
Regulator Classroom Organization and Management Procedures
Criteria Student Behavior Enhancement Objectives
Processor Superintendents, and/or Other Representatives from County and City Districts and Parochial Diocese
Processor Superintendent, Central Administrative Staff, and Building Representatives
Processor Principal, Teachers, Other Staff, Student Body, and Parents
Processor Teacher, Students, and Other Staff
Evaluation
Input
Output•Input
Output
Feedback

FIGURE 2.

Administrative Organization Showing Functional Relationships
Among School Staff, Project Staff, and Advisory Bodies



fit most in separate classes for writing, spelling, and reading while integrated classes would be retained in social studies, science, music, art, and mathematics so that social, co-educational learning is not slighted.

Conclusion. In general it can be concluded that advancements are slowly being made in the teacher-student relationship and the classroom environment despite the complexity of these phenomena. There is a current trend which is directed at individualizing instruction so as to maximize potential (achievement). Although this is a laudable goal, it is hoped that individualized instruction of the future will be predicated as much on fostering sound mental health and personal development as achievement. With the increased pressures youth are experiencing today and must live with tomorrow education must be *total* education rather than the current state of primarily academic education.

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GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING

Introduction

Although education has espoused the total development of the student it has simultaneously concentrated on cognitive development almost exclusively. Physical education, health care, individual differences, and the emotional and social development of the student have generally been minimal and incidental in the school and curriculum. The presence of guidance and counseling has generally been token acknowledgment of total development or an *ex post facto* crisis attempt to maintain school equilibrium and stability.

Because of the achievement orientation in our society guidance and counseling has had a difficult time getting established in the schools and in many cases just as difficult a time in maintaining itself. The culmination of many events including an unheralded post World War II increase in prosperity, greater implementation of freedom of thought, and scientific advances resulted in considerable unrest with education in the 1960's. With increasing unrest and social problems laymen and educators are increasingly turning to guidance and counseling for answers. Panaceas are increasingly desired but increasingly non-existent because of spiraling student inquiry and confrontation of establishment practice.

In spite of this phenomenon guidance and counseling, along with other helping professions, has attempted to both espouse its worth and prepare and develop skills and technology for problems which were forthcoming. During the last decade guidance and counseling has done much to expand its technology and sophistication within its profession and domain. It has, however, been somewhat shortsighted in not assuming a more active and interventionist role with reference to the normal student in the mainstream of American education.

Computer Assisted Guidance and Counseling

Introduction. Whole-hearted endorsement and development of computer technology by guidance personnel could result in the most significant and therapeutic contribution the counseling profession can make to the personal development of all students. As Bohn and Super (1969) state:

> On the technological horizon the computer looms large in its potential for changing the organization and functioning of

> counseling services. With its capacities for rapid and accurate computation, its infallible memory, its speedy retrieval and effective display, its freedom from human foibles of bias and mood, and its complete obedience, the computer has possibilities which are only beginning to be put to use.

The increasingly complex nature of both computer technology and social structures and problems have given rise to *systems* approaches which stress: (a) translating aims and goals into objectives which are explicit and operational; (b) designing procedures capable of accomplishing these objectives, identifying relevant variables the procedures are intended to change, and construction of an *a priori* model which delineates relationships between the variables; and (c) model implementation and evaluation of the results in terms of the stated objectives. As Cooley and Hummel (1969) state:

> The evaluation activities are ordinarily intended not only to yield judgments of the worth of what has been done but also to provide "feedback," i.e., information useful for revising the original objectives and procedures. Thus a system in operation often has a cybernetic character; the model keeps changing as a result of information obtained in its implementation.

To date, the major applications of computers in guidance have been in the areas of scheduling and vocational and educational planning. Eventually it can be expected *all guidance functions will be coordinated into one unified computer system which, in turn, would eventually and ideally be integrated into a total educational school system.*

As computer technology becomes more refined it can be expected computers will be increasingly utilized by schools regardless of whether the school district purchases its own computer, joins in a cooperative or regional program, or contracts with commercial computer agencies. Based upon research of guidance services in the San Francisco, California schools, VanDalsen (1969) suggests a minimumly effective guidance computer program for 12,000 students would cost $50,000 a year and require a technically trained staff. In light of the increasingly wide range of feasible applications such as vocational and educational placement, test interpretation, and computer counseling, however, this investment seems warranted.

Because of the newness of this field and the lack of unified and coordinated national efforts to develop programs, the writer

has attempted to discuss computer systems being developed in terms of their major areas of application. It should be remembered, however, that many researchers are constantly exploring and attempting to integrate several computer systems. More information concerning programs discussed below can be found in the publications of Cooley and Hummel (1969), Scates (1969), and Vriend (1969).

The review of the literature revealed a trend in computer program development toward systems of student-computer interaction. At present most of these programs are in the area of educational and career exploration. Some of these programs will be operational in the near future. Experimental programs are also being developed for test interpretation and student-computer personal counseling. As these systems are refined and as computer technology advances it can be expected these isolated programs will be integrated into larger systems approximating a unified comprehensive system encompassing all aspects of the child's life-style and life space.

Educational and Vocational Exploration Systems. The Education and Career Exploration System (*ECES*) is being developed by International Business Machines Corporation in cooperation with Minor, Super, and Myers (Minor, *et al.*, 1969; Bohn and Super, 1969). This project is directed at serving students between the ages of 12 and 19. It consists of three distinct phases entitled Vocational Orientation, Educational Orientation, and Post-High School Educational Search which have been explained by Minor, *et al.* (1969) as follows:

> Phase I provides the student with an occupational information bank that he uses for vocational browsing, exploring and clarification. Phase II provides the student with educational information that he uses for exploring training programs and educational areas of study and learning how they relate to educational goals. Phase III provides the student with a technical, vocational, junior college and senior college information bank that he uses for isolating the names of post-high school institutions that best satisfy his educational and vocational goals and his personal preferences.

This program is currently being field tested and should be available soon.

The Information System for Vocational Decisions (ISVD) is being developed in the Newton, Massachusetts public schools by Tiedeman and his colleagues (Tiedeman, 1969). This system is predicated upon Tiedeman's decisionmaking theory. Utilizing

occupational, educational, military, personal and family living, and student characteristics, the system interacts directly with the student in a *natural language* conversation. This system includes three phases which Tiedeman has described as:

> (1) accurate, complete and relevant data for use in decision-making, (2) training in decision-making, and (3) supervised practice in decisionmaking.

Evaluation of this project is not yet available. Cooley and Hummel have suggested, however, that the high cost of a natural conversation program is currently prohibitive for widespread use in the public schools in the near future.

The Computer Assisted Career Exploration (*CACE*) System has been developed by Impelliteri (1969) at Pennsylvania State University and has been field tested in the Altoona, Pennsylvania school district. This program involves three stages described by Impelliteri as:

> . . . to provide an easily up-dated, individualized, occupational information retrieval information system; to develop through an essentially heuristic approach a process whereby youth could develop their own individualized frameworks of the occupational structure; and to provide experiences for youth to acquire operational strategies in relating their abilities and interests to occupational opportunities.

Current evaluation of this system indicates: (a) only sixteen of the forty programmed occupational descriptions were used by most students; (b) 65 percent of the boys utilized volunteer computer opportunities; (c) typeouts were the most interesting and helpful to students with slides least so; (d) discrepancy statements were useful in stimulating self-evaluation; (e) no consistent strategy of exploration seemed to be developed by these students while working with the program; and (f) more occupations were considered after the program but occupational goals and choice of course studies did not seem to be affected by the experience. Impelliteri stresses the superiority of this system over others currently being developed is that it interacts with the student at a more *elementary* and *concrete* level and is programmed to account for *concrete* student perceptions of vocations, regardless of their accuracy.

Cooley and Hummel (1969) describe the System of Interactive Guidance and Information (*SIGI*) developed by Katz. This system also has three components: a value system, an informa-

tion system, and a prediction system. The student interacts with the computer and obtains a ranking of career options. These options can be revised over time, if and as, the three types of data change.

Another program is currently being developed by the American Institutes for Research in the beha :oral sciences (*AIR*) and Flanagan (1969). *AIR* is an independent part of Project *PLAN*. This system involves individual assessment, the provision of educational and vocational information, and coordinated individual and group counseling. Materials stored in the computer include student scores on the Project TALENT sample and later success and satisfaction ratings in various occupations. This system makes recommendations of specific guidance learning units predicated upon student vocational interest and high correlations between TALENT scores and success criteria which indicate high probabilities of future success. This program, along with others (Tondow, 1969), is currently being field tested in Palo Alto, California and results should be available soon.

Project *PLAN* (Dunn, 1969) is an ungraded, computer-supported, individualized program of education. Project *PLAN*, in turn, is a program based on Project *TALENT*. This series of programs is probably the most exhaustive attempt at a unified system. Cooley and Hummel (1969) have listed its shortcomings but also indicate a program which remediated its failures would examplify a total systems approach.

Harris (1969) discusses a vocational guidance system which has been implemented in the Willowbrook High School in Chicago, Illinois. This system differs from most others in that it is built upon the occupational classification system of Roe. Information stored in the program includes class rank, and scores on aptitude, achievement and interest tests. If students choose to utilize the computer they are asked to rate themselves in terms of learning ability, class rank, interest areas, and post-high school educational plans. The computer then compares the student's self rating with objective information stored concerning the student and informs him of discrepancies. The computer then encourages the student to explore these discrepancies with his counselor. Evaluation of this project should be available soon. One potentially serious reservation, which will be discussed in more depth at the conclusion of this subsection, is the student's readiness to "deal" with sudden and unexpected discrepancy of reality and/or himself, or both.

The recently increased educational attention to vocational and technical education in both the high school and junior college make the University of Oregon *GUIDPAK* System (Loughary, 1969) interesting. This is an entry-job vocational guidance system being developed for students who are non-college preparatory and who have not had specific vocational work during high school. Although the program is not computer-based, *per se*, computer programs are optional for storing and retrieving the occupational information which it generates. The two major services provided by this system include information about entry level job opportunities and procedures and tools for use in evaluating these jobs. This program is currently being field tested and results and materials should be available soon.

Youst (1969) described the Rochester, New York Career Guidance Project. This program uses computer programs called "OCCUsearch" and "DOTscan" to assist students in exploring any of over 600 jobs on microfilm.

Three innovations in career exploration which are not computer-based but which offer promise because of their potentially wide application and minimum counselor presence are the *Life Career Game* (Varenhorst, 1968), "Career Kits" (Krumboltz, 1967), and *Vocational-Educational Encounter Tapes* (audio) by Berzon (1969). The first mentioned "game" assists students in learning and exploring reality while the kits of Krumboltz have been found to be successful with vocational problem solving for lower socioeconomic students. The tapes of Berzon, distributed by the Human Development Institute, are a sequential series of ten tape directed sessions resulting in greater vocational and educational awareness and sensitivity.

Earlier it was mentioned that one serious concern of student-computer interaction programs is the student's readiness and ability to cope with what may often be severe student distortions of one or all of the following factors: reality, vocational aspirations, intelligence, abilities, interests, achievement, socioeconomic level, etc. As has been stated in other places in this report, our lifestyle and behavior are often as much or more a function of fantasy, attitudes, beliefs and values than of accurate self-assessment and relevant information. Although we espouse and value objectivity and the computer epitomizes objectivity, it is also true that knowledge of the computer's objectivity and computer feedback which indicates considerable discrepancy between evaluation of "the facts" and our subjective evaluation

could fairly easily panic, immobilize, or even overwhelm the student. It is precisely because of this that most counselors engage in the pacing process. Although some computer based sytems are attempting to incorporate this process in computer programs, it is the writer's opinion this variable has been largely overlooked by many student-computer interaction programs. To the extent this variable has not been incorporated, provisions should be made to have counselors available prior to, during, and after student utilization of the computer. In this respect it is recommended group discussion, group guidance, or group counseling be a concomitant of student-computer interaction systems.

Computer-Based Test Construction and Interpretation. During the last decade a considerable number of schools began utilizing computers to score tests, provide frequency distributions, and statistical summaries such as means, standard deviations, and quartiles. One of the more outstanding programs of this nature has been established by the New England Educational Data Systems (Socarides, undated). This system utilizes: (a) a RCA Spectra 70/45 computer; (b) an automated conversion routine called ACORN; and (c) DIGITEK Answer sheets. With this set up it is possible to process a three page test for 500 students in less than two hours. The ACORN system has incorporated thirteen standardized tests (six achievement and seven aptitude). Some of the advantages of this program are: (a) comparison of student performance to peers, national norms, or any other group pattern desired; (b) an indices is provided for curriculum and instructional goals, and (c) school comparisons. Helm (1967) also describes a program using PROTRAN which interprets ability, interest, and personality scores.

Another value of computers is test construction. The Portland, Oregon (1967) schools recently initiated a computer-based test development center. The goal of this program is to design well-validated achievement tests for specific purposes and specific learner groups. Although this program is aimed for teacher and subject matter tests, guidance counselors should be familiar and knowledgeable with these programs since student achievement is often incongruent with student aptitude and intelligence.

Although there has been and is considerable resistance to personality and psychological testing in the schools it can be expected the school will increasingly engage in this activity for therapeutic reasons. Two innovative projects involving computer-based psychological test interpretations were uncovered in

the review of the literature. Finney (1967) is in the process of developing a FORTRAN IV computer interpretation of the *MMPI* and *CPI* tests. Veldman (1967) developed a computer-based *One-Word Sentence Completion Test.* If the subject's responses are not those most frequently given or clear the computer interacts with the subject in an exploration and clarification through synonyms.

Computer-Based Counseling Systems. Computerized counseling will probably be the most controversial computer application within the counseling profession. Although there are many grounds on which it can and will be questioned, three of the most pertinent issues are: (a) the computer's ability to facilitate the human use of human beings rather than creating increased alienation and estrangement in an already technological society; (b) increased refinement of computer technology to the point that the computer can instantaneously account for the student's psychological readiness and respond accordingly and therapeutically; and (c) reduction in counselor threat which manifests itself in resistance because of the fear of being replaced by the computer. Only as these barriers are overcome will developments in computerized counseling emerge as rapidly as they are capable of being developed.

One of the more ambitious attempts to develop a computer-counseling system is being conducted by the System Development Corporation in cooperation with Cogswell *el. al.* (1967) and discussed by Cooley and Hummel (1969). Although this system (AUTOCOUN) was originally oriented to vocational counseling it has given increased attention to personal counseling. Preliminary results indicate this system produced seventy five percent (75%) of the same statements that counselors produced. Indications are this accuracy can and is being increased quite easily. Overall, students showed no marked preferences for either the computer or the counselor. There were, however, marked individual differences with some students clearly preferring the computer while others preferred the counselor. Students favoring the computer indicated it had more specific and factual information. This group also communicated with the computer about a significantly greater number of course-related problems. Half of the students, however, did not think the computer gave enough consideration to personal interests and personalities. An appropriate conclusion might be that made by Cooley and Hummel who state:

> Some students may find the need for human contact increased by using a machine; for other students the need for contact may be reduced.

As Tondo (1969) states:

> Students find the impersonality a relief and trust that the computer has no biases. They are pleased at having control over the flow of information and like being able to request an appointment with the counselor by so simple a method.

This program and others are being experimented with in the Palo Alto, California schools.

Cooley and Hummel (1969) describe a project being conducted by Hummel termed the Coordinated Information and Guidance System (*CIGS*). This program is directed at providing a learning environment in which each student engages in and is assisted in self-exploration, the clarification of values, and obtaining relevant information. This is done in groups of no more than fifteen students meeting no more often than one period per day. A number of group techniques and exercises are employed which create a permissive and loosely structured interaction among students and leader. Aspects of this program which prove the most successful will be computerized in the future.

Cassel (1969) describes a computer assisted counseling program directed at assisting culturally disadvantaged students gain greater social insight and thereby better cultural adjustment. This program consists of twenty problem situations in each of the following eight areas: (a) home and family; (b) conscience and inner-development; (c) community and peers; (d) law enforcement and rule; (e) school and education; (f) psychosexual and romance; (g) economic sufficiency; and (h) leadership and self-actualization. Each problem has five multiple choice responses. If the student selects the ideal response he progresses in the series. If the selected response is antisocial, however, the student is asked to select another response. This program is being developed at the University of Wisconsin in Milwaukee.

A final system which is in its infancy but which would have extremely significant implications, if and when refined, is described by Colby (1967). He and his associates are attempting to develop a computerized program which simulates and facili-

tates changes in personal belief systems. At present this system is experimenting with attempting to change belief systems by:

> . . . trying to simulate these processes by an on-line dialogue with the program which first attempts to lessen the credence of a belief by weighing evidence for and against it. This is achieved by consulting all the relevant beliefs in the system to weigh evidence for the contrast of a belief. If more evidence is found for the contrast than the original, the original's belief's credence is lessened. This in turn may effect the credence of a belief for which it can serve as a supporting system.

Preliminary evaluation of the system indicates "input designed to weaken the reasons for a belief is more effective in changing the belief than trying to weigh evidence for and against the belief directly." This system more than any other serves to point out not only that belief systems will probably be able to be changed via computer programs but also that computer programs of a potent nature can be utilized in ways which are either constructive or destructive to humanity.

Computer-Assisted Scheduling and College Selection. Schools have increasingly utilized computers for scheduling or sectioning students to classes. International Business Machines Corporation has developed the Class Load and School Scheduling (*CLASS*) program which has been utilized in a number of high schools including Ann Arbor, Michigan. A more exhaustive attempt to computerize a master schedule program has recently been described by the Educational Facilities Laboratories, a nonprofit corporation established by the Ford Foundation (1964). This program, entitled Generalized Academic Simulation Programs (*GASP*), has been implemented in a number of schools including Wayland, Massachusetts; Norridge, Illinois; and Cohasset, Massachusetts. Although costs of this program have varied widely—from $1 to $10 per student—one school with 2,500 students scheduled for $3 per student while a school with 400 students cost $7 per student. Schools considering computerized scheduling should investigate this program.

Lovell (1969) described a computerized program called SELECT being developed by Harcourt, Brace & World which assists the student, parent and counselor in identifying colleges for the student. This system involves a student questionnaire which records student requirements for a college, personal data, aptitude and test records, and high school record items. This

data is compared with computer stored information from 3,000 universities, colleges, junior colleges, and trade schools. This system is not directed at making the college decision for the student but rather as a preliminary screening process which selects schools most compatible with student data.

Another computer-assisted college selection program is SEARCH (1969). The students fills out a 72-item *College Preference Inventory*. This information is fed into the computer and the student receives a computer typed letter listing the ten colleges most compatible with student data. SEARCH is located in Cambridge, Massachusetts, and costs $10 per student.

Juola *et. al.* (1968) recently described a computer-assisted program of academic advising for low achieving students and students experiencing difficulties in particular subject matter areas. Although this program was developed for university students it could be modified and used at the high school level. The major goal of this program is to raise a student's grade point average by: (a) repeating courses and having the new grade replace the old grade, rather than averaging the two grades; (b) advising students to not enroll for or drop an advanced course in a sequence if grades in introductory courses have been marginal and to repeat the earlier course thus securing better foundation knowledge; and (c) picking electives in which the student has a higher-than-average likelihood of success. Student's who availed themselves of the computerized program not only significantly improved their grade point average but also performed significantly better than students not utilizing the computer service. The ramifications of this approach are many including utilization with potential dropouts and underachievers as well as the average student. A more far reaching implication suggested by this study is that, with effective academic advisement, it might be possible for all students to be "successful" (GPA) in their schooling. Effective scheduling might also antiquate the notion of normal distributions of GPA's and class grades.

Elementary School Counseling

Introduction. The 1960's witnessed the emergence of guidance and counseling in the elementary school. The rise of this profession in the 1960's and its establishment in all schools during the 1970's is based upon: (a) the belief that emotional and social ills are more likely to be prevented or allieviated if inter-

vention occurs at an earlier age; (b) greater appreciation for the daily increasing complexity of life; and (c) the belief in more meaningful lives for all via better learning climates and individualized instruction. The *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling Journal* appeared in 1965 and schools interested in keeping abreast of developments in this newly created profession would benefit from subscribing to this journal.

Elementary school counseling is being received enthusiastically. As Hill (1967) indicates:

> . . . the guidance movement in our elementary schools is moving faster, more sensibly, and with better results in the elementary schools than has been true of the secondary schools . . . Thus the idea of guidance is already present in the elementary school; it does not have to be promoted. The pressures under which principals and teachers work in the school render them most receptive to the idea of a close-at-hand team member to help them help children to grow up to be human decent citizens.

Thus implementation of elementary school guidance and counseling is more a function of preparation of elementary school counselors and delineation of an effective role than of convincing the public of its worth.

Role and Function. One of the considerations foremost in the minds of experts defining the role and function of elementary school counselors has been not to duplicate failures and deficiencies of guidance and counseling in the secondary school. The major criticism of secondary school counseling (from both within and outside of the profession) has been its crises orientation. Because of this and the fact that a crisis orientation does nothing to benefit the normal majority of students, the elementary school role which is emerging differs almost *in toto* from the secondary role. Faust (1968b), one of the major spokesman of this emerging profession, has summerized these differences in the table on page 61.

Perusal of this table indicates the primary emphasis is *developmental* and directed at creating a *learning* (emotional, social, and cognitive) *climate* which facilitates *all* children.

Based on extensive reviews of the literature, both Cottingham (1967) and Faust (1969a) conclude most authorities support the developmental model of elementary school guidance. Because many educators and laymen lack knowledge of developmental psychology and believe "guidance is guidance," the

TABLE 1

Summary of Differences Between High School Counseling and Elementary School Counseling

High School Counseling	Elementary School Counseling
1. Emphasis on occupational information and career exploration; includes such features as "career days."	1. (a) At most, may coordinate teachers and high school counselors in working out occupation information and career exploration program. (b) High school counselor assumes initial leadership; only periodic consultation when the design is completed. (c) After initiation of the program in the classroom, the teacher assumes leadership.
2. Emphasis on post-high school educational planning.	2. None.
3. Emphasis on "next semester program planning."	3. At most, may coordinate high school counselor and teacher in semester program planning for entering high school.
4. Emphasis on testing, mostly in areas of aptitude, interests, and achievement.	4. None.
5. Emphasis on **crisis** counseling. Students with problems referred to variously as academic, dropout, personal maladjustment, social maladjustment, violation of school rules or policy, etc.	5. (a) Emphasis on **developmental** counseling for **all** children. (b) Engages in some crisis counseling, but usually as a vehicle for influencing the total curriculum.
6. Emphasis on various "orientation programs," such as introducing students to the school, its facilities, and structure.	6. None.
7. Emphasis on individual counseling (continuously attempting to reduce the counselor-student ratio).	7. Emphasis on moving away from individual counseling (though it is, and will continue to be, an important area of functioning).
8. Growing interest in group counseling, though individual counseling continues to dominate.	8. Emphasis on group counseling.

Elementary School Counseling	High School Counseling
9. Practices teacher counseling and consultation only with **relative** frequency.	9. Emphasis on teacher counseling and consultation.
10. Is not adverse to but "relatively" seldom practices parent counseling.	10. None.
11. Is not adverse to but "relatively" seldom practices parent consultation.	11. Practices parent consultation but usually on a group basis. (Prefers not to invest in individual parent for family consultation.)
12. Seldom conducts, but is not adverse to, in-service programs for teachers.	12. Usually involved in an in-service program for teachers.
13. Seldom directly involved, but not adverse to, the central stream of curriculum development.	13. Emphasis on direct involvement in the central stream of curriculum development (translating human behavior principles into instructional methods, course content, and program design).
14. Emphasis on **learning** is primarily in regard to a focus on semester grades, course change, program planning, teacher changes, dropout prevention.	14. (a) Emphasis on **learning** as the central concern, primarily exercised through developing a learning climate for **all** children, which frees them for learning. (b) "Relatively" disinterested in (i.e., does not focus on) semester grades, course changes, program planning, teacher changes, dropout prevention.
15. Plans daily or weekly schedule in terms of student-counselor ratio.	15. Plans daily or weekly schedule in terms of teacher-counselor ratio (tentatively set at one counselor for every twenty-five teachers.

writer has chosen to use the table of Faust (1969b) to differentiate alternative elementary school counselor roles and practices available. (See pages 63 and 64.)

The developmental approach should not be limited, however, to crucial developmental stages and tasks. Myrick (1969) has drawn attention to the fact that:

> . . . additional emphasis should be given to the general development requirements of a growing person, regardless of

TABLE 2

Differentiation of Practices: Traditional, Neotraditional and Developmental Elementary School Counselors

Practice	Extent of Emphasis the Practice is given		
	Traditional	Neotraditional	Developmental
1. Educational program planning, scheduling advisement.	1. Considerable emphasis.	1. Very little emphasis.	1. Practically no emphasis.
2. Career or occupational exploration: a. Career days. b. Advisement-counseling in career choices, etc.	2. Considerable emphasis.	2. Very little emphasis.	2. Coordinates classroom teacher and secondary school counselor efforts to introduce career exploration into curriculum.
3. College planning: a. School choice. b. Scholarships, etc.	3. Very little emphasis.	3. Practically no emphasis.	3. Practically no emphasis.
4. Responsible for some or all of testing program. (May administer and/or interpret test data; reports results.)	4. Considerable emphasis.	4. Tends to resist. (Though can interpret test data for own understanding of human behavior.)	4. Practically no emphasis. (Though can interpret test data for own understanding of human behavior.)
5. Duplicates psychologists roles and functions. (Testing; child problem centered; diagnostic.)	5. Considerable emphasis.	5. Emphasizes to some extent.	5. Very little emphasis.

Practice	Extent of Emphasis the Practice is given		
	Traditional	Neotraditional	Developmental
6. Duplicates social worker's (visiting teachers) roles and functions. (Emphasis on working with families.)	6. Considerable emphasis.	6. Considerable emphasis.	6. Very little emphasis.
7. Child-crisis counseling.	7. Considerable emphasis.	7. Considerable emphasis.	7. Some emphasis.
8. Child-consultation.	8. Considerable emphasis.	8. Emphasis to some extent.	8. Some emphasis.
9. Teacher-crisis counseling.	9. Practically no emphasis.	9. Very little emphasis.	9. Considerable emphasis.
10. Teacher consultation.	10. Some emphasis.	10. Considerable emphasis.	10. Considerable emphasis.
11. Teacher developmental counseling.	11. Practically no emphasis.	11. Very little emphasis.	11. Considerable emphasis.
12. Principal counseling.	12. Practically no emphasis.	12. Practically no emphasis.	12. Practically on emphasis.
13. Principal consultation.	13. Considerable emphasis.	13. Considerable emphasis.	13. Considerable emphasis.
14. Parent counseling.	14. Practically no emphasis.	14. Very little emphasis.	14. Practically no emphasis.
15. Parent consultation.	15. Considerable emphasis.	15. Considerable emphasis.	15. Very little emphasis.
16. Referral agency.	16. Considerable emphasis.	16. Considerable emphasis.	16. Some emphasis.
17. In-service training (teachers).	17. Very little emphasis.	17. Considerable emphasis.	17. Considerable emphasis.

> age, stage of growth, or essential skill to be learned. That is to say, learning climates as much as stages and tasks, need to receive greater attention. A truly developmental approach should focus on the feeling organism and also recognize that feelings are an inextricable part of our intellectual and behavioral processes.

Only as the developmental model incorporates *developmental tasks and acceptance of the human being as a person somewhat independent of his age, sex, race, socioeconomic level, life space, generation, and culture can it fulfill its promises and possibilities.*

Within the developmental model of elementary school guidance and counseling it is generally agreed the primary counselor functions are consulting, counseling, and coordination. Authorities are divided and undecided, however, concerning both the rank order of importance and the percentage of time each of these activities should receive. A trend favoring consultation does appear to be present. More specifically, this involves consultation with teachers.

Although the writer considers it extremely premature to make judgments concerning the effectiveness of consultation because of lack of clarification and implementation of consultation procedures, Kranzler (1969) compared studies involving elementary counselors who counseled versus those who consulted versus elementary school children receiving neither and concluded:

> Leaving children alone (in control groups) was apparently as effective as giving them counseling or having counselors consult with teachers about them; and leaving children alone requires considerably less counselor time (i.e., is more efficient) than either counseling or consulting.

Kranzler concludes this condition may continue to exist until "more precise descriptions of specific procedures to be followed when helping specific types of children make specific types of behavioral changes" are developed. Advances in child and educational psychology, elementary counseling, and classroom climate research in the near future should result in more specific consultation procedures. Consultation (with counselors) is discussed in the counseling subsection on Emerging Professionals Roles.

Current Status and Practices. Numerous studies have shown the elementary teacher and administrator favor imple-

mentation of elementary school counseling. Nevertheless, these personnel continue to perceive the role of the elementary school counselor somewhat differently than the currently emerging model. Muro and Oelke (1968) replicated a study conducted by McDougall and Reitan which surveyed attitudes of elementary school administrators of Idaho, Washington, and Oregon concerning the role of the elementary school counselor. Muro and Oelke surveyed 555 teachers and principals in the state of Georgia. Using the *Elementary Specialists Inventory*, their results generally confirm the McDougall and Reitan study. Both studies found elementary principals and teachers perceive the major functions of the elementary school counselor as: (a) counseling; (b) identification of students with special needs; (c) testing; (d) inservice training; and (e) coordination of services. These findings suggest no general pattern or core of services exists for the elementary counselor and that the wide range of services desired indicates a need for specialized *team* services extending beyond the developmental role and competencies of elementary school counselors. In this regard it can be expected the elementary counselor of the future will probably be part of a team of specialized support personnel. In the interim, however, it is in the best interest of students to implement the emerging developmental consulting role as the most efficient and comprehensive model currently available.

State surveys of elementary school counselor practices in California (McCreary and Miller, 1966), New York (Biasco, 1969) and Washington (Anderson, 1968) indicate present elementary school counselors *still* prefer to spend almost half their time counseling (either individually or in groups) with students. The remaining half of their time is generally spent working with parents and teachers with the former generally receiving more time and attention than the latter. Again, these practices are quite divergent from the emerging role of the elementary school counselor.

VanHoose and Vafakas (1968) and Warner (1969) surveyed elementary school counseling practices in all fifty states. Warner indicates there are over 4,700 elementary school counselors and that the focus of inservice education programs conducted by state deparements of education was overwhelmingly in the area of elementary school counseling (as opposed to other more traditional and innovative guidance activities). VanHoose and Vafakas found seventy-three percent (73%) of elementary

school counselors were employed full-time and eighteen percent (18%) served halftime or more. Seventy-five percent (75%) of the part-time counselors also taught in the elementary school. Sixty-seven percent (67%) of elementary school counselors had taught in the elementary school prior to becoming a counselor.

An anticipated finding of concern was that the great majority of elementary school counselors were supported, at least in part, by federal funds. Thirty-seven percent (37%) were supported entirely through federal funds and only twenty-two percent (22%) were employed totally from state and/or local funds. Although schools may wish to initiate programs in elementary school counseling using federal funds, it is hoped the belief in and worth of elementary school counseling would result in schools supporting elementary counselors with local and state funds. This would eliminate the possibility of losing elementary counselors if federal funding of education were reduced.

VanHoose and Vafakas (1968) indicate fourteen states have developed elementary counseling certification requirements which differ from secondary certification. Seven more states are currently doing likewise. Thirty-one states have developed elementary standards and guidelines although these are often vague and general. One of the major deterrents to more rapid development of better guidelines and certification requirements has been the lack of elementary counselor training programs in universities. As this barrier is overcome it can be expected elementary school counselors will appear in increasing numbers and that by the end of the 1970's there will be one elementary school counselor per elementary school.

Several authorities have made recommendations, based upon these surveys, for improving elementary school counseling. Cottingham (1967) concludes there are: (a) deficiencies in theorectical formulations concerning elementary guidance; (b) lack of clarification of the teacher's role in guidance; and (c) continuing unmet needs of elementary students. Hill (1967) stresses: (a) the lack of articulation between elementary and secondary counseling; (b) lack of interest in elementary counseling among secondary school counselors; and (c) lack of public understanding resulting in poor financing and staffing. Biasco (1969) indicated there are deficiencies in: (a) accounting procedures and systems; (b) facilities and equipment; (c) confidentiality; (d) secretarial and clerical assistance; (e) a guid-

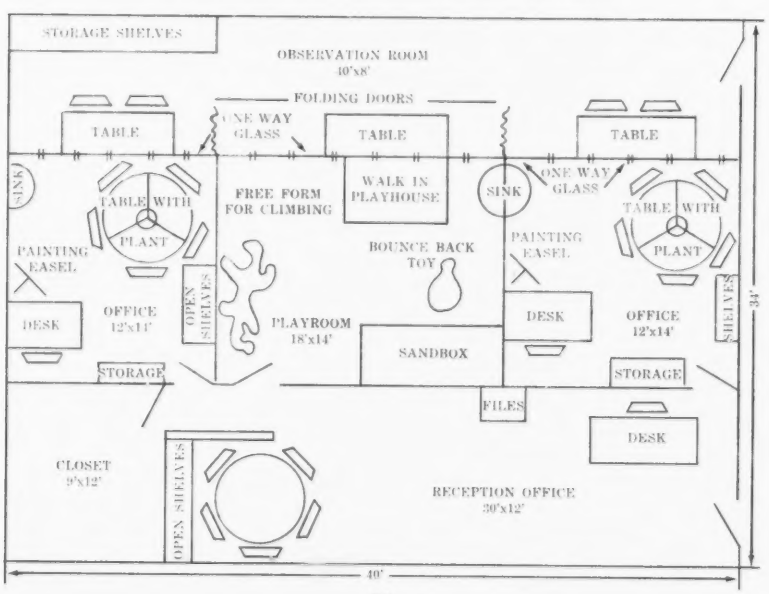
ance advisory committee; (f) regularly scheduled planning with the principal; (g) the developmental approach; and (h) research and evaluation of programs.

While many of these shortcomings do exist they can be alleviated with time and money and should serve to stimulate development of more effective programs rather than discouraging establishing programs.

Elementary School Counseling Facilities. Because of the recent emergence of elementary school counseling, very few elementary schools have adequate facilities. Ideally, future elementary schools will incorporate facility provisions for an elementary counseling center. Nelson (1967) has made the only significant contribution in this area. He developed three differing schematics which are feasible for school populations of 700 to 800 students. One of these is shown below. Besides the more traditional aspects of secondary counseling facilities it is imperative elementary school provisions include play materials and a play therapy room.

Myrick and Hadin (1969) discussed temporary facility provisions for schools currently without facilities and poorer and/or rural districts. He shows a schematic of a remodeled trailer

ELEMENTARY COUNSELING CENTER—OPTION 3



which can be utilized until more permanent provisions become available at which time the trailer can be moved to another school still lacking provisions. This is currently being utilized in the Silver Lake Elementary School in Palatka, Florida.

Group Activities

Introduction. In many respects the 1960's can be characterized as the era of the Great Group Binge. Less than ten years ago counseling was generally thought of as a one-to-one relationship primarily for the emotionally disturbed and people with "problems." Seeking or receiving the services of counselors often resulted in being viewed by the layman as odd or mixed-up. Today participation in most forms of group experiences is not only respectable but often represents a status symbol.

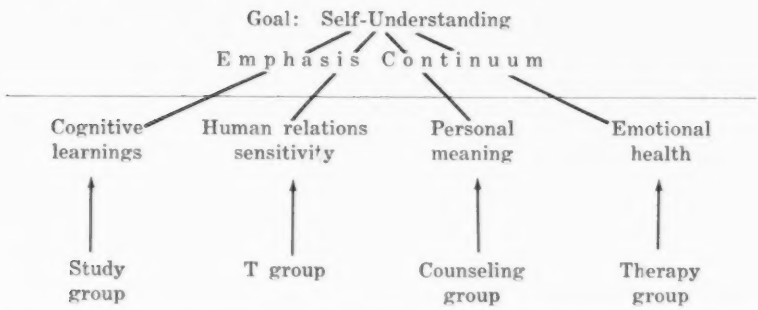
For students there are study groups, buzz groups, task groups, report groups, process groups, group guidance, and group counseling. For teachers and administrators there are task groups, black-white groups, sensitivity groups for improving both horizontal and vertical relationships and communication, sensitivity groups to facilitate better learning and environments for students, encounter groups for increasing both intra- and interpersonal growth, and groups to assist both teachers and administrators in becoming more effective change agents. In short, during the late 1960's if there was a problem, groups were the answer.

The popularity of groups as a panacea, inadequate professional preparation of leaders, lack of provision for a planned sequence of experiences, poor evaluation procedures, institutional endorsement of change but resistance to it, lack of agreement concerning appropriate terminology with reference to groups, and the inevitable struggling and often directionless efforts of a newly emerging phenomenon have resulted in widespread confusion concerning the whole group movement.

In an attempt to remediate this situation the writer has chosen to utilize the format of Muro and Freeman (1968). They have attempted to differentiate and clarify groups in the following schematic.

Space does not allow an indepth discussion of all these types of groups and the reader is warned against interpreting this schematic either too literally or simplistically.

There is no doubt all types of group experiences potentially provide for human interaction of an intense nature. To date,



Supporting Group Activity

groups may be the most potentially potent change agent social scientists have discovered. As Rogers (1968) indicates:

> In the first place, it is a highly potent experience and hence clearly deserving of scientific study. As a phenomenon it has been both praised and criticized, but few people who have participated would doubt that *something* significant happens in these groups. People do not react in a neutral fashion toward the intensive group experience. They regard it as either strikingly worthwhile or deeply questionable. All would agree, however, that it is *potent.*

Because of this potency the group movement has divided into two major camps: one favoring minimal structure in which any participant can introduce any topic at any time; and more structured groups in which the groups is either assigned or engages in determining a task or set of experiences. This latter approach involves pacing and a slower but somewhat more planned and predictable intensity and outcome. At this time it is difficult to speculate concerning the outcome of this division. Some people are increasingly throwing caution to the wind while others are increasingly concerned with stability and slower progress. In many respects this dichotomy is but a manifestation of larger polarizations occurring today.

At the present time the most relevant categories of group experiences for students, teachers and administrators, as defined by Muro and Freeman, are T-groups and counseling groups. The writer has chosen to focus on these two areas but also to interpret them in their larger and increasingly overlapping meanings and implications.

Group Counseling. Because of the recency of group counseling considerable confusion exists with reference to both group counseling terminology and definition. Gazda *et. al.* (1967) recently surveyed authorities on group counseling and attempted to arrive at a composite definition of group counseling. He states:

> Group counseling is a dynamic, interpersonal process focusing on conscious thought and behavior and involving the therapy functions of permissiveness, orientation to reality, catharsis, mutual trust, caring, understanding, acceptance, and support. The therapy functions are created and nurtured in a small group through the sharing of personal concerns with one's peers and the counselor(s). The group counselees are basically normal individuals with various concerns which are not debilitating to the extent of requiring extensive personality change. The group counselees may utilize the group interaction to increase understanding and acceptance of values and goals and to learn and/or unlearn certain attitudes and behaviors.

Results of this survey also indicate the following advantages of group counseling over individual counseling, in descending order of importance: (a) reality testing in a less threatening environment; (b) more economical and efficient use of counselor time; (c) the effective use of peer group pressure; (d) counselees learning to be facilitative and serve as co-counselors; and (e) an impetus for subsequent individual counseling. Disadvantages of group counseling, in decreasing order of frequency mentioned were: (a) inappropriate for certain problem-types, e.g. sociopathic or psychopathic children; (b) difficulty in controlling confidentially, degree of involvement, collusion that is harmful, and anxiety level; (c) a more skillful and sensitive counselor; (d) appropriate selection procedures; (e) difficulty in arranging time for a meeting; and (f) student acceptance of an environment which may become somewhat artificial.

Perusal of the *disadvantages* of group counseling listed above indicate *many are directly related to the counselor's effectiveness* and could be minimized or negligible with an effective counselor. At present, however, very few counselor education programs have incorporated comprehensive group preparation in their Master degree programs. Because of this practicing counselors generally have no formal preparation in group counseling and their present state of knowledge has accumulated via trial and error experimentation or by participation in

groups with a sensitivity or growth orientation. Schools considering establishing group counseling would be well advised to have their counselors return to a university for preparation in group work or conduct an inservice workshop prior to implementation. With competently prepared counselors the possibility of "sticky" or explosive group situations is greatly reduced.

Once schools are ready to implement group counseling, decisions must be made concerning group goals, group formation and composition, group size, session length and frequency, ground rules, and evaluation procedures. One of the best overviews of these considerations is by Combs *et. al.* (1963). Anderson (1969) recently reviewed research concerning these and other group counseling dimensions. Some of his conclusions are:

1. In nearly all studies, the basis for client selection was convenience. In most cases, groups were assembled according to a single common factor such as age or a common problem such as low academic achievement.
2. . . . as group size increases: (1) the absolute rate of interaction for any given member tends to decrease; (2) the proportion of infrequent contributors to the group interaction increases; (3) more members report feelings of threat and inhibition regarding participation; (4) giving of information and suggestions increases and asking for opinions in showing agreement decreases; and (5) more statements are directed to the leader and the leader addresses more statements to the group as a whole rather than to individual members.
3. Although GPA is a socially significant, objectively quantifiable, convenient measure of academic success, it is somewhat inadequate as a single outcome criterion . . . this suggests that GPA should only be used as *one* of several criteria of academic success. (Underlining added).
4. Solid evidence is accumulating that operant conditioning; desensitization procedures; and the presence of accurate empathy, non-possessive warmth, and genuineness in a relationship tend to produce consistent, predictable outcomes with selected clients.

Gazda's (1968) review of the literature indicates positive changes of one type or another have generally been reported in about half of group counseling studies. Most of these changes have been descriptive in nature. About fifty percent (50%) of studies utilizing GPA have shown significant improvement and about twenty percent (20%) of studies have indicated gains in self-concept with other improvements listed as decreased anx-

iety, improved family and peer relationships, improved school behavior, improved school attendance, increased educational and occupational information, and improvement in reading. In studies where group counseling was compared with individual counseling outcomes results are about even with reference to which approach is superior. Gazda indicates the most successful approach might be individual *and* group counseling. Finally, several authorities believe more accurate outcome evaluation would involve comparison of individual pre-post gains or losses of group members since pre-post total group evaluation changes tend to offset one another.

Until recently group counseling has been problem or deficiency oriented and thus remedial in nature. This orientation has not allowed for determining the effectiveness of group counseling with minor adjustment problems, orientation, developmental tasks, and exploration and clarification of attitudes and values of adequately coping students. In the future it can be expected group counseling will be utilized increasingly in these latter mentioned areas as well as the former.

An example of the developmental approach to group counseling has been described by Moore (1969). She describes a program in the Sheridan Junior High in Minneapolis, Minnesota which has involved all seventh graders in short-term group counseling. Continued refinement and sophistication of this approach could be one way of helping all students to fulfill their developmental tasks and resolve differing value systems supplied by the major institutions in their life space. In so doing group counseling will become both more preventive and developmental in nature. The school counselor conducting group counseling may find the recent book of readings by Muro and Freeman (1968) and an extensive bibliography through 1968 by Zimpfer (1969) of value.

Growth groups. Growth groups came into their own during the early and mid 60's and experienced instantaneous popularity. Within the last two to three years they have been increasingly endorsed by some and questioned by others. Endorsement has generally come from those who desire personal or organizational change while those questioning the movement have been either satisfied with the status quo and/or research scholars. Although there have undoubtedly been some irresponsibly run groups, Ellis (1968) reviewed growth group research and con-

cluded isolated examples of poor group experiences and premature evaluation are not bona fide criteria for rejection of the total growth movement. She states:

> The data indicate that a possible avenue for educators interested in the methods of learning included in sensitivity training would be to become more actively involved with applied behavioral scientists in collaborative activities. This assumes that collaborative involvement is more productive than asking the same questions or devaluing all of sensitivity training on limited data.

In addition, she cites Harrison who has defined problems of growth group evaluation as: (a) control populations; (b) when to evaluate outcomes; (c) dimensions and directions of proposed changes; (d) difficulty in developing a classification scheme for outcomes; (e) variability in training experiences; (f) timing of data collection; (g) leader-participant relationships during the experience; and (h) statistical considerations.

Further complicating evaluation of the growth group movement is lack of standardization of group techniques due to polarization which occurred within the original founding organization of this movement, National Training Laboratories. Initially this movement was developed by applied behavioral scientists and utilized in industrial management. Due to emerging disagreements on a number of group issues and goals some members of NTL formed a splinter group which, in addition to psychological occurrences on the West Coast, resulted in East and West growth group orientations of considerably divergent nature. At present growth groups on the East Coast are characterized by such terminology as T-groups and sensitivity training and involve sequential techniques and sessions stressing primarily verbal communication and improved horizontal and vertical organization communication. This segment of the group movement has and is attempting research evaluation. West Coast growth groups are characterized by either unstructured verbal communication (the encounter group) or awareness and consciousness expanding groups involving body exercises and/or planned intra-and interpersonal experiences. This segment of the group movement emphasize experiencing and, to date, has not attempted much research evaluation due to philosophical beliefs which seriously question the presently used scientific method.

School districts wishing to implement sensitivity training for

teachers directed at improving information retrieval in the classroom would benefit from techniques utilized by Chesler *et. al.* (1966); Fox *et. al.* (1966); and Schmuck *et. al.* (1966). District interested in more encounter and awareness expanding group experiences would benefit from Boocock and Schield (1968); Gunther (1968); Malamud and Machover (1965); and Schutz (1967). When workshops are planned by professional and imaginative leaders all of these sorces could be incorporated into an experience directed at either of these goals. The reader should refer to the subsection on sensitivity training in the teacher-student relationship chapter for additional information.

Emerging Professional Roles

Introduction. For a number of years the major concerns of the counseling profession have been training a greater number of counselors for the secondary schools, delineating their role, improving their techniques, reducing the counselor-student ratio, and attempting to provide better guidance for all students. These factors have resulted in a shortage of *adequately* prepared secondary school counselors and the realization this situation will not be alleviated in the near future. Increasing emphasis on intervention in the elementary school plus federal programs increasingly incorporating greater emphasis on guidance and counseling have resulted in the counseling profession reevaluating the role and function of counselors as well as preparation requirements.

One of the first indications of this reassessment was the statement by the American Personnel and Guidance Association (1967) which attempted to establish role and function guidelines of a paraprofessional. More recently the University of Florida Department of Counselor Education conducted a year long institute designed to prepare counselor consultants. Thus it is apparent differentiated staffing with regard to role and function is appearing within the counseling profession. As Lister (1969) states:

> . . . rather than concentrating on increasing the supply of counselors with one or two years of preparation who will function in the contemporary counselor role, a pyramidal distribution of counseling personnel may emerge with a large number of support personnel at the base and consultative, supervisory, and "master counselor" personnel toward the apex. There is precedent for such a model in other helping professions.

The 1970's will probably witness a differentiation of personnel within the counseling profession. The counseling profession and other helping professions will also increasingly unite and be utilized in a team approach.

Paraprofessional. It its 1967 policy statement, the American Personnel and Guidance Association defined direct and indirect functions of helping relationships which paraprofessionals could perform. For the most part the activities of the paraprofessional would be *concrete and specific in nature and masterable with practice or drill.* Although a number of factors should be taken into consideration concerning preparation of the paraprofessional, training should be a matter of weeks or months rather than years. Inservice preparation and supervision are considered crucial aspects of training.

The first real attempt to delineate role, function, and preparation of paraprofessionals was recently conducted by Beal (1968). She surveyed junior college counselors and counselor educators (considered authorities in the field of student personnel in higher education) concerning preparation and function of counselor aids for junior colleges. Utilizing the *Activities Analysis Assessment Form* consisting of sixty six (66) guidance and counseling functions, she found activities considered most appropriate for the counselor aid were classifiable as indirect. Although some of these involve face-to-face contact with students they are not characterized by the parameters or intensity of the counseling relationship. About half of all activities involving referral, consultation, and community relations were perceived as inappropriate counselor aid activities. Direct helping relationship activities which aids were seen as involved in were largely restricted to the dissemination of factual information.

Both junior college counselors and counselor educators favored a two year post high school preparation program although counselor educators generally favored a higher level of preparation than junior college personnel. An outgrowth of this research has been that Santa Fe Junior College in Gainesville, Florida, in conjunction with Beal, is in the process of establishing a two year paraprofessional preparation program. Schools considering utilizing counselor aids should define the counselor aid's role based upon these findings, counselor judgments in their own schools, and consultive services of counselor educators.

The first attempt to develop paraprofessionals was Project CAUSE. Over 1,900 people were recruited by universities to be prepared as youth advisors and counselor aids in Youth Opportunity Centers and the U. S. Employment Service. Johnson and Grosz (1967) reported a CAUSE follow-up at the University of North Dakota. About ninety percent (90%) of students enrolled in this program were gainfully employed upon its conclusion and most were satisfied with counseling as a profession. Their effectiveness, however, was not evaluated.

Carlson *et al.* (1969) described development of a paraprofessional program in the Deerfield, Illinois Elementary School District No. 109. Unlike the preparation requirements suggested above this program advertised in the local press for applicants with: (a) a Bachelor's degree; (b) provisional or permanent teacher certification; (c) three basic courses in guidance; and (d) willingness for on-the-job training for one year. Most of the functions of the counselor aid in this program have been stated in terms of behavioral objectives. Twelve applicants were selected from a field of fifty nine (59) inquiries. The first three weeks of the program were spent in the classroom and the first activity counselor aids became actively involved in was the standardized testing program. Gutsch *et al.* (1969) describes a similar program in Hattiesburg, Mississippi. Carlson *et al.* also cite paraprofessional projects being developed in Pittsburgh and Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; and Detroit, Michigan. The Detroit, Michigan plan involves utilizing counselor aids who are poor, unemployed, and relatively uneducated to assist inner-city schools (Bazeli, 1969). This program resulted in counselors spending a significantly greater amount of time counseling.

Numerous authorities have cited the shortage of counselors and the high cost involved in counselor preparation. In addition a host of counselor activities in the secondary school are routine and clerical in nature. Thus schools interested in utilizing the most sophisticated skills of counselors (such as counseling, consultation, and research) would benefit from the assistance of a paraprofessional. Carlson *et. al.* (1967) indicate:

> The concept of support personnel is applicable wherever there is a need for *improved* and *extended* service.

Because of these and other reasons it can be expected the paraprofessional will emerge as an integral and important member of the counseling team in the 1970's.

Counselor Consultant. The last decade witnessed: (a) a trend in major universities toward a two year Master degree preparation of counselors based upon accumulating research evidence attesting to the complexity and sophistication of major counselor functions; (b) a trend toward reduction in requiring either a teaching background or teaching experience as a prerequisite for becoming a counselor which results in a somewhat more difficult establishment period for the non-education major counselor in the school; and (c) research which indicates counselor isolation and/or living in rural areas severely threatens the counselor's survival and effectiveness. Because of these factors Lister (1969) has assumed leadership in defining a new professional who is a consultant to counselors.

He points out most helping professions have or are developing a *pyramidal distribution of specialized personnel within their profession.* He conceptualizes the consultant to counselors being assigned to one large school or two to three smaller schools that employ 10 to 15 counselors. In the latter case the consultant might well be assigned to a district or county office. The major function of the consultant is to maximize the effectiveness of counselors. This would be realized through the consultant having a "non-administrative staff relationship . . ." Consultant preparation would involve: (a) demonstrated effectiveness as a counselor; and (b) a second or third year of advanced preparation.

Although some might question the worthwhileness of this professional on the basis of financial considerations, most professionals can and will attest to the necessity of professional stimulation and interaction for the maintenance of personal and professional growth. As Lister states:

> The addition of a consultant might not appear budgetarily feasible in most schools at a time when a shortage of counselors still exists, but counselors in leadership positions should emphasize that a point of diminishing returns in counselor effectiveness is reached quickly when counselors lack access to regular consultation about their work.

We have only begun to become aware of the complexity of: (a) the counselor's role and functions; (b) counselor effectiveness; (c) counseling research and technological advances; and (d) the complexity of dyadic, group, and systems relationships. To keep guidance and counseling's involvement and contribution to the school dynamic and enlarging and to prepare students for

an increasingly complex and rapidly lived life it is necessary for the school to employ specialists. For a considerable period of time curriculum specialists have been utilized. In most respects we are in an age that requires guidance specialists.

Conclusion. Guidance and counseling has been accused of being an isolated step-child of the mainstream of the educational process. There was a period of time when this was, in fact, true. During the last decade, however, the counseling profession has engaged in examination and scrutiny of internal and external criticism. Considerable soul searching during the last decade has resulted in guidance and counseling expanding and innovating internally. If guidance and counseling is to actualize its potential both externally and internally, however, it must expand beyond its current focus and boundaries and engage itself actively as a change agent in other areas of personal development discussed in this report which contribute to the development of more fully functioning human beings.

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